John Adams
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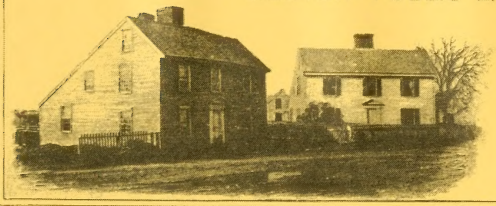

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ART. I. *A Defence of the Conſtitutions of Government of the United States of America. By John Adams, LL.D. and a Member of the Academy of Arts and Sciences at Boſton.* 8vo. 5s. boards. Dilly. London, 1787.

THE American revolution has produced many theories and ſpeculations on government and politics. Legiſlators have ſtarted up in every part of Europe and America who wiſhed to give laws to the new world, and to change the chaos of American anarchy into a regular and orderly ſyſtem. It is much to be doubted, however, whether ſpeculative politicians are fit to direct the affairs of men, or the lucubrations of the cloſet to form the model of public life. The moſt chimerical ſyſtems of legiſlation have been adopted and recommended by men of uncommon genius and extenſive learning. The dreams and viſions of Plato and Sir Thomas More, and even of Milton and Locke, are, in many parts, as wild and eccentric as the ravings of Bedlam. A philoſopher may make ſucceſsful experiments on air and electricity, may excel in algebraical calculations, may wander in the mazes of metaphyſics, without being bewildered; nay, he may defend the principles of liberty and the rights of mankind with great abilities and much ſucceſs; and, after all, when called upon to produce a plan of legiſlation, he may aſtoniſh the world with the aberrations of intellect

and the vagaries of fancy. Mr. Locke, in 1663, was employed to compoſe a code of legiſlation for Carolina; with one ſtroke of his pen he committed the whole authority, legiſlative and executive, to the eight proprietors of the province. By this new oligarchical ſovereignty he created at once three orders of nobility; barons with twelve thouſand acres of land; caciques with twenty-four thouſand; and landgraves with eighty thouſand. Subjects were wanting to this ill-modelled government, the colony decayed, and the ſyſtem of the philoſopher periſhed in its abſurdity.

Three writers in Europe, of abilities and reputation, M. Turgot, the Abbé de Mably, and Dr. Price, have turned their attention to the political conſtitutions of the United States of America, and have publiſhed to the world their ſpeculations and their criticiſms. Notwithſtanding the pure intentions of the authors, the experience in public affairs acquired by one of them *, and the ample information concerning the nature of man and the ſcience of government poſſeſſed by all, many ſentiments occur in their works which it will be difficult to reconcile to reaſon, experience, the conſtitution of human nature, and the firſt principles of policy adopted by all enlightened nations, whether ancient or modern. M. Turgot, in his letter to Dr. Price, acknowledges "that he is not ſatisfied with the conſtitutions "that have hitherto been formed for the different ſtates of "America." He obſerves "that, by moſt of them, the "cuſtoms of England have been imitated, without any "particular motive. Inſtead of collecting all authority into "one centre, that of the nation, they have eſtabliſhed dif-"ferent bodies; a body of repreſentatives, a council, and "a governor; becauſe there is in England a houſe of com-"mons, a houſe of lords, and a king. They endeavour to "balance theſe different powers, as if this equilibrium, "which in England may be a neceſſary check to the "enormous influence of royalty, could be of any uſe in "republics founded upon the equality of all the citizens; "and as if eſtabliſhing different orders of men was not a "ſource of diviſions and diſputes."

From the commencement of the revolution in America there has been a party in every ſtate which entertained ſentiments ſimilar to thoſe of M. Turgot. Two or three of them have eſtabliſhed governments upon his principle; and propoſals have been made in ſeveral ſtates of America to

* M. Turgot.

depoſe

depoſe the governor and ſenate as uſeleſs and expenſive branches of the conſtitution. As the opinion of M. Turgot contributed to excite theſe diſcontents among the people, Mr. Adams held it a political and moral duty to examine his theory at great length; to call the experience of paſt ages to enlighten the preſent; and, from a wide and extended view of human affairs, to mark and aſcertain thoſe principles of legiſlation and government which give order, ſucceſs, ſtability, and duration to political eſtabliſhments and to civil ſociety. The ſubject is certainly one of the moſt intereſting that can engage the ſpeculation or prompt the deciſion of men. What combination of powers in ſociety, or what form of government, is moſt likely to ſecure the eſtabliſhment, and the impartial execution, of good and equal laws, ſo that the citizens may enjoy the benefit of them, and confide in their perpetuity, is an inquiry that equally concerns the philoſopher and the citizen; for, whether the end of man, in this ſtage of exiſtence, be enjoyment or improvement, or both, it can never be attained ſo well in a bad government as a good one.

The great and leading idea which runs through the ingenious and learned work of Mr. Adams is, that a mixture o the three powers, the regal, the ariſtocratical, and the democratical, properly balanced, compoſes the moſt perfect form of government, and ſecures the greateſt degree of happineſs to the greateſt number of individuals. This policy, indeed, appears to be the inſtitution of nature.* Vitruvius diſcovered the rudiments of architecture in the conſtruction of a ruſtic cabbin; and the hiſtorian or philoſopher may trace the origin of the three powers in political ſociety in the rude governments of ſavage tribes. Every nation in North-America has a king, a ſenate, and an aſſembly of the people. The royal office is elective, but it is for life; the ſachems form the ordinary council, in which all the national affairs are deliberated and diſcuſſed; but, on great occaſions, ſuch as declaring war, the king and ſachems convoke a national aſſembly, and, after a ſolemn ſacrifice, communicate their reſolution to the people. Thoſe who approve of the war, partake the ſacrifice, throw the hatchet into a tree, after the example of the king, and join in the ſubſequent war-ſongs and dances, as a mark of their concurrence with the expedition. A ſimilar form of policy prevailed among the ancient Greeks. "It is eaſy to obſerve from Homer," ſays Ariſtotle, "that the ancient governments of Greece "were limited; the king propoſed to the aſſembly of the "people what beforehand had been concerted and reſolved in

" the council of the chiefs." The political inſtitutions of our German anceſtors were formed on the ſame principle. " *De minoribus rebus*," ſays Tacitus, " *principes conſultant*, " *de majoribus omnes*; *ita tamen ut ea quoque, quorum penes* " *plebem arbitrum eſt, apud principes prætractentur* *."

Among the ancients, the ſame Tacitus extols the form of government in which there is a chief or leader, a ſenate, and a popular aſſembly, though he doubts of its practicability and duration. " *Cunctas nationes, et urbes, populus aut* " *priores, aut ſinguli, regunt. Delecta ex his et conſtituta* " *reipublicæ forma, laudari facilius quam inveniri; vel ſi* " *evenit, haud diuturna eſſe poteſt* †." Cicero is decided in giving the ſame preference: " *Statuo eſſe optime conſtitutam* " *rempublicam, quæ ex tribus generibus illis, regali, optimo et* " *populari, modice confuſa* ‡." Polybius and Dionyſius of Halicarnaſſus give their teſtimony to the ſame doctrine, and affirm that the moſt perfect form of government is that which conſiſts of an equal mixture of monarchy, ariſtocracy, and democracy.

c The obſervation of M. Turgot, that " the cuſtoms of " England are imitated in moſt of the new conſtitutions in " America, without any particular motive," is ſhewn by d Mr. Adams to be without foundation. Suppoſing that the Engliſh cuſtoms were merely indifferent, the people by their birth, education, and habits, were familiarly attached to them; and this ſurely was a particular motive for their preſervation, rather than endanger the public tranquillity or unanimity by renouncing them. A diviſion of power was adopted by the ſtates, conſiſting of a body of repreſentatives, a council, and a governor, not becauſe the legiſlature in England conſiſted of three branches, a houſe of commons, a houſe of lords, and a king, but becauſe their own aſſemblies had been ſo conſtituted from time immemorial; and beſides their attachment from habit, the concluſions of reaſon led them to the conviction that it was founded in nature, and conducive to public good.

e f Our author next examines the opinion of M. Turgot, " that an aſſembly of repreſentatives ſhould be choſen by " the nation, and veſted with all the powers of government; " and that this aſſembly, being the centre in which all au- " thority is collected, ſhall be virtually deemed the na-

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* Some editions read " *pertractentur*," which loſes the idea of Tacitus altogether.

† Annal. lib. iv. ‡ Cicer. Fragm. de Republicâ.

" tion."

" tion," To ſtate the conſequences, and expoſe the abſurdity of this opinion, Mr. Adams takes a brief but comprehenſive view of all thoſe countries in Europe in which the government may be called republican; and from this ſurvey demonſtrates the neceſſity of different orders in a ſtate, and of an equilibrium between them. His reflections in the twenty-third letter are enlightened, ſpirited, and manly: *vf*

' As we have taken a curſory view of thoſe countries in Europe where the government may be called, in any reaſonable conſtruction of the word, republican, let us now pauſe a few moments, and reflect upon what we have ſeen.

' Among every people, and in every ſpecies of republics, we have conſtantly found a firſt magiſtrate, a head; a chief, under various denominations, indeed, and with different degrees of authority, with the title of ſtadtholder, burgomaſter, avoyer, doge, conſalloniero, preſident, ſyndick, mayor, alcalde, capitaneo, governor, or king; in every nation we have met with a diſtinguiſhed officer: if there is no example in any free government any more than in thoſe which are not free, of a ſociety without a principal perſonage, we may fairly conclude that the body politic cannot ſubſiſt without one any more than the animal body without a head. If M. Turgot had made any diſcovery which had eſcaped the penetration of all the legiſlators and philoſophers who had lived before him, he ought at leaſt to have communicated it to the world for their improvement; but as he has never hinted at any ſuch invention, we may ſafely conclude that he had none; and therefore, that the Americans are not juſtly liable to cenſures for inſtituting governors.

' In every form of government we have ſeen a ſenate, or little council; a compoſition generally of thoſe officers of ſtate who have the moſt experience and power, and a few other members ſelected from the higheſt ranks and moſt illuſtrious reputations. On theſe leſſer councils, with the firſt magiſtrate at their head, generally reſts the principal burden of adminiſtration, a ſhare in the legiſlative as well as executive and judicial authority of government. The admiſſion of ſuch ſenates to a participation of theſe three kinds of power has been generally obſerved to produce in the minds of their members an ardent ariſtocratical ambition, graſping equally at the prerogatives of the firſt magiſtrate, and the privileges of the people, and ending in the nobility of a few families, and a tyrannical oligarchy: but in thoſe ſtates where the ſenates have been debarred from all executive power, and confined to the legiſlative, they have been obſerved to be firm barriers againſt the encroachments of the crown, and often great ſupporters of the liberties of the people. The Americans then, who have carefully confined their ſenates to the legiſlative power, have done wiſely in adopting them.

' We have ſeen, in every inſtance, another and a larger aſſembly, compoſed of the body of the people, in ſome little ſtates; of repreſentatives choſen by the people in others; of members appointed by the ſenates, and ſuppoſed to repreſent the people, in a third ſort; and of

perſons appointed by themſelves or the ſenate, in certain ariſtocracies, to prevent them from becoming oligarchies. The Americans then, whoſe aſſemblies are the moſt adequate, proportional, and equitable repreſentations of the people that are known in the world, will not be thought erroneous in appointing houſes of repreſentatives.

'In every republic, in the ſmalleſt and moſt popular, in the larger and more ariſtocratical, as well as in the largeſt and moſt monarchical, we have obſerved a multitude of curious and ingenious inventions to balance, in their turn, all thoſe powers, to check the paſſions peculiar to them, and to control them from ruſhing into thoſe exorbitancies to which they are moſt addicted; the Americans will then be no longer cenſured for endeavouring to introduce an equilibrium, which is much more profoundly meditated, and much more effectual for the protection of the laws, than any we have ſeen, except in England: we may even queſtion whether that is an exception.

'In every country we have found a variety of orders, with very great diſtinctions. In America there are different orders of offices, but none of men; out of office all men are of the ſame ſpecies, and of one blood; there is neither a greater nor a leſſer nobility. Why then are they accuſed of eſtabliſhing different orders of men? To our inexpreſſible mortification we muſt have remarked that the people have preſerved a ſhare of power, or an exiſtence in the government, in no country out of England, except upon the tops of a few inacceſſible mountains, among rocks and precipices, in territories ſo narrow that you may ſpan them with an hand's breadth; where, living unenvied, in extreme poverty, chiefly upon paſturage, deſtitute of manufactures and commerce, they ſtill exhibit the moſt charming picture of life, and the moſt dignified character of human nature.

'Wherever we have ſeen a territory ſomewhat larger, arts and ſciences more cultivated, commerce flouriſhing, or even agriculture improved to any great degree, an ariſtocracy has riſen up in a courſe of time, conſiſting of a few rich and honourable families, who have united with each other againſt both the people and the firſt magiſtrate; wreſted from the former, by art and by force, all their participation in the government, and even inſpired them with ſo mean an eſteem of themſelves, and ſo deep a veneration and ſtrong attachment to their rulers, as to believe and confeſs them a ſuperior order of beings.

'We have ſeen theſe noble families, although neceſſitated to have a head, extremely jealous of his influence, anxious to reduce his power, and conſtrain him to as near a level with themſelves as poſſible, always endeavouring to eſtabliſh a rotation, by which they may all equally in turn be entitled to the preeminence, and equally anxious to preſerve to themſelves as large a ſhare of power as poſſible in the executive and judicial, as well as the legiſlative departments of the ſtate.

'Theſe patrician families have alſo appeared, in every inſtance, to be equally jealous of each other, and to have contrived, by blending lot and choice, by mixing various bodies in the elections to the ſame offices, and even by the horrors of an inquiſition, to guard againſt the ſin that ſo eaſily beſets them, of being wholly influenced and governed by a junto or oligarchy of a few among themſelves.

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'We have ſeen no one government in which is a diſtinct ſeparation of the legiſlative from the executive power, and of the judicial from both, or in which any attempt has been made to balance theſe powers with one another, or to form an equilibrium between the one, the few, and the many, for the purpoſe of enacting and executing equa laws, by common conſent, for the general intereſt, excepting in England.

'Shall we conclude, from theſe melancholy obſervations, that human nature is incapable of liberty; that no honeſt equality can be preſerved in ſociety; and that ſuch forcible cauſes are always at work as muſt reduce all men to a ſubmiſſion to deſpotiſm, monarchy, oligarchy, or ariſtocracy?

'By no means,—We have ſeen one of the firſt nations in Europe, poſſeſſed of ample and fertile territories at home, and extenſive dominions abroad, of a commerce with the whole world, immenſe wealth, and the greateſt naval power which ever belonged to any nation, who have ſtill preſerved the power of the people, by the equilibrium we are contending for, by the trial by jury, and by conſtantly refuſing a ſtanding army. The people of England alone, by preſerving their ſhare in the legiſlature, at the expence of the blood of heroes and patriots, have enabled their kings to curb the nobility, without giving him a ſtanding army.

'After all, let us compare every conſtitution we have ſeen with thoſe of the United States of America, and we ſhall have no reaſon to bluſh for our country; on the contrary, we ſhall feel the ſtrongeſt motives to fall upon our knees in gratitude to heaven for having been graciouſly pleaſed to give us birth and education in that country, and for having deſtined us to live under her laws! We ſhall have reaſon to exult, if we make our compariſon with England and the Engliſh conſtitution. Our people are undoubtedly ſovereign; all the landed and other property is in the hands of the citizens; not only their repreſentatives, but their ſenators and governors, are annually choſen; there are no hereditary titles, honours, offices, or diſtinctions; the legiſlative, executive, and judicial powers are carefully ſeparated from each other; the powers of the one, the few, and the many, are nicely balanced in their legiſlatures; trials by jury are preſerved in all their glory, and there is no ſtanding army; the habeas corpus is in full force; the preſs is the moſt free in the world; and, where all theſe circumſtances take place, it is unneceſſary to add, that the laws alone can govern.'

In the ſubſequent letters Mr. Adams contemplates, with a critical and philoſophic eye, the moſt celebrated ſtates and commonwealths of antiquity, Carthage, Athens, Achaia, Crete, Corinth, Argos, Thebes, Crotona, Sybaris, Locris, and Rome; and at the ſame time delivers the opinions of the celebrated ancient and modern writers concerning the principles of government in general, and theſe governments in particular. The reſult of his reſearches is favourable to that diviſion of power which the Engliſh and the Americans

have adopted, and which appears to reſt upon the authority, the experience, and the wiſdom of ages.

In the poſtſcript Mr. Adams favours the public with the copy of a letter which he ſent to the Abbé de Mably when he declared his intention of writing on the American revolution. The adventurous ſpirit of the French literati is well known; who, truſting to the verſatility of their talents, which is often great, and to the correct elegance of their language, which is univerſally read, preſume to write on all ſubjects, foreign and domeſtic, human and divine, on a very ſlender acquaintance. Our author's requeſt to the abbé to write upon American affairs was a piece of mere civility, and, as he informs us, "rather a deſire that he would not "*expoſe himſelf*, by attempting a hiſtory that he was altoge- "ther unprovided for, than any formal requeſt that he "ſhould write at all. We are obliged," continues Mr. Adams, "to any gentleman in Europe who favours us with "his thoughts; but, in general, the theory of government "is as well underſtood in America as it is in Europe; and "by great numbers of individuals is every thing, relating to "a free conſtitution, infinitely better comprehended than by "the Abbé de Mably or M. Turgot, amiable, learned, and "ingenious as they were."

The preface to this work contains many excellent and manly ſentiments, worthy of an ancient Greek or Roman. The following obſervations, which form a panegyric on the Engliſh as well as American conſtitution, will ſerve as a ſpecimen:

'It is become a kind of faſhion among writers to admit, as a maxim, that, if you could be always ſure of a wiſe, active, and virtuous prince, monarchy would be the beſt of governments. But this is ſo far from being admiſſible, that it will for ever remain true that a free government has a great advantage over a ſimple monarchy. The beſt and wiſeſt prince, by means of a freer communication with his people, and the greater opportunities to collect the beſt advice from the beſt of his ſubjects, would have an immenſe advantage in a free ſtate more than in a monarchy. A ſenate conſiſting of all that is moſt noble, wealthy, and able in the nation, with a right to counſel the crown at all times, is a check to miniſters, and a ſecurity againſt abuſes, that a body of nobles who never meet, and have no ſuch right, can never accompliſh. Another aſſembly, compoſed of repreſentatives choſen by the people in all parts, gives the whole nation free acceſs, and communicates all the wants, knowledge, projects, and wiſhes of the nation, to government; excites an emulation among all claſſes, removes complaints, redreſſes grievances, affords opportunities of exertion to genius, though in obſcurity, and gives full ſcope to all the faculties of man; opens a paſſage for every ſpeculation to the legiſlature, to adminiſtration,

and to the public: it gives an univerſal energy to the human character, in every part of the ſtate, which never can be obtained in a monarchy.

'There is a third particular which deſerves attention both from governments and people. The miniſters of ſtate, in a ſimple monarchy, can never know their friends from their enemies: cabals in ſecret undermine their influence, and blaſt their reputations. This occaſions a jealouſy ever anxious and irritated, which never thinks the government ſafe without an encouragement of informers and ſpies, throughout every part of the ſtate, who interrupt the tranquillity of private life, deſtroy the confidence of families in their own domeſtics and one another, and poiſon freedom in its ſweeteſt retirements. In a free government, on the contrary, the miniſters can have no enemies of conſequence but among the members of the great or little council, where every man is obliged to take his ſide, and declare his opinion, upon every queſtion. This circumſtance alone, to every manly mind, would be ſufficient to decide the preference in favour of a free government. Even ſecrecy, where the executive is entire in one hand, is as eaſily and ſurely preſerved in a free government as in a ſimple monarchy; and as to diſpatch, all the ſimple monarchies of the whole univerſe may be defied to produce greater or more examples of it than are to be found in Engliſh hiſtory.'

The celebrated Mr. Hume uſed to call Dr. Franklin "the firſt fruits of America." The American revolution has given elaſticity and energy to the minds of the inhabitants, has called forth talents and abilities of every kind, and produced a more copious harveſt than the ſolitary "firſt fruits" obſerved by Mr. Hume ſeemed to indicate. A Copley and a Weſt have obtained the honours of the pencil; Dwight, Barlow, and Trumbull, have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in poetry; Belknap and Ramſay in hiſtory; Jefferſon has excelled in philoſophical reſearches; Paine in political ſpeculations; and to theſe names, known and appretiated by the learned world, that of Mr. Adams will be added, who, in the work before us, diſcovers an extent of learning, an acuteneſs of reflection, and a maſculine ſpirit, which few ambaſſadors in any court of Europe poſſeſs, but which all of them would be proud to diſplay. Whatever opinion we may entertain of American ambition or policy, the muſes are never at war; however the ſcale of empire riſes or falls, every lover of literature will rejoice that the arts are about to make the tour of the world; and that the ſame ſun of ſcience and taſte which gilded the eaſt with its orient rays, is now illuminating the weſt, and diffuſing warmth and ſplendour on regions that were formerly unknown to hiſtory, and remote from civilization.

ART.

ART. II. *Letters to Dr. Prieſtley, in Anſwer to thoſe he addreſſed to the Jews, inviting them to an amicable Diſcuſſion of the Evidences of Chriſtianity. By David Levi, Author of Lingua Sacra, the Ceremonies of the Jews, &c.* 8vo. 3s. Johnſon. London, 1787.

THE letter which appeared in our Review for April laſt from the Rabbi Ben Solomon to Dr. Prieſtley, (and which ſince that time hath gone through various editions) probably ſuggeſted the idea of this ingenious and acute performance. David Levi, well known to the learned world by his Hebrew Grammar and Dictionary, and his Treatiſe on the Ceremonies of the Jews, here accepts the challenge which Dr. Prieſtley had given to the Hebrew nation, takes up the gauntlet of that redoubtable champion, and, with a ſmall ſtone from the brook, fairly fractures the ſkull of the uncircumciſed Philiſtine. The faith and valour of our Iſraelitiſh hero ſhew him to be the genuine ſeed of Abraham. The rabbies and elders among the Jews are, in general, averſe to religious controverſy, for two reaſons: in the firſt place, they are afraid of advancing tenets that may have a tendency to diſturb the national religion as by law eſtabliſhed, following the advice of the prophet, "Seek the "peace of the city whither I have cauſed you to be carried "away captive; for in the peace thereof ye ſhall have "peace *." Secondly, the generality of literary Hebrews being foreigners, are deficient in the proper idiom and phraſeology of the Engliſh language. With regard to the ſecond, ſays our reverend and learned Iſraelite †, "I think "it is of great weight; and therefore can only ſay, in the "language of little David. *Let no man's heart fail becauſe "of him; thy ſervant will go and fight with this Philiſtine.* "And though it may be ſaid, *thou art not able to go againſt "the great Goliath of Gath, whoſe ſtaff is like a weaver's "beam, and whoſe height is ſix cubits and a ſpan; for thou art "but a ſtripling, and he is a man of war ‡ from his youth:* "to which I anſwer, in the language of the little champion, *Thy ſervant ſlew both the lion § and the bear ‖; and "this uncircumciſed dog ſhall become as one of them: for he "cometh againſt me with a ſword **, and with a ſpear ††, and*

* Jerem. xxix. 7. † Page 7. ‡ The war of words.
§ Dr. Prideaux, vide Cerem. Jews, p. 252. ‖ Hutchinſon, the myſtic.
** Controverſy. †† Criticism.

"*with*

" *with a ſhield* *; *but I come in the name of the Lord of* " *Hoſts.*"

In his firſt letter the deſcendant of the patriarchs treats " of the preſent diſperſion of the Jewiſh nation," which he affirms was not owing to their rejection of Chriſt:

' As to the cauſe of our preſent captivity, and which you impute to our rejecting and perſecuting of the prophets, that is, Chriſt and his apoſtles, I freely aſſert to be ill founded; for, whether Chriſt was the ſecond perſon in the Trinity, as Chriſtians in general hold, or only a prophet, as you and the reſt of your ſect affirm; I ſay, in either caſe, he could not be ſent to us in the *firſt* place; nor could we receive him without being hoſtile to the laws of Moſes, as alſo to God, who was the author of them, as acknowledged by both Jews and Chriſtians. For, if he came in the former character, and the doctrine which he preached was intended to maintain that abſurd and corrupt tenet, it would be an unanſwerable argument that his doctrine never came from God, it being impoſſible that God ſhould contradict himſelf; for hath he not expreſsly told us himſelf, in the ſecond commandment, " thou ſhalt have no other gods before me." This, I think, muſt neceſſarily ſignify, if there be any meaning in language, One Supreme Intelligent Being, endued with all poſſible perfection, power, wiſdom, knowledge, and goodneſs. And, agreeable to this juſt, rational, and fundamental doctrine, Moſes has, in the moſt ſolemn manner, endeavoured to inculcate this moſt important truth in the following words: " Hear, O Iſrael, Jehovah our God is ONE Jehovah." Deut. vi. 4.

' Theſe, beſides numberleſs other paſſages in the Old Teſtament, make it plain that we could not receive Chriſt in the firſt character, without a breach of the covenant eſtabliſhed between God and our nation. And if in the ſecond character, that is, as a prophet, we likewiſe could not receive him; for, in the firſt place, he was deficient in the eſſential character of a prophet. We do not find it recorded that Chriſt prophefied in the name of God, as it is expreſſed by all the other prophets, from Moſes to Malachi (who was the laſt), " As the Lord ſpake unto Moſes," &c. And, as ſoon as Joſhua ſucceeded Moſes, we find immediately that " the Lord ſpake unto Joſhua, the ſon of Nun," &c. Joſh. i. 1. The ſame of Samuel, Iſaiah, and all the reſt. But as to Jeſus, we only find that " he went about all Galilee, teaching in their ſynagogues, and preaching the goſpel, and healing all manner of ſickneſs, and all manner of diſeaſes;" whether by art, deception, or ſupernatural power, is not my buſineſs at preſent to inquire: freethinkers may perhaps ſay it was ſomething like a ſpiritual mountebank; but I have only to obſerve, it was not like a prophet endued with the ſpirit of prophecy.

' And the evangeliſt Matthew calls the whole diſcourſe, which takes up the fifth and ſixth chapters, a ſermon, not a prophecy. The ſame we find in Mark i. 21, " And ſtraightway on the ſabbath day he entered into the ſynagogue and taught." Again, ver. 38, " And he

* Sophiſtry.

ſaid

ſaid unto them, Let us go into the next towns, that I may preach there alſo. And he preached in their ſynagogues, and caſt out devils." The ſame in Luke: "And he preached in the ſynagogues of Galilee," Luke iv. 44; alſo v. 1, and vi. 20, &c. As to John, he ſeems clear in the opinion of his divinity, (chap. i. 1, 2, 3, &c.); though he afterwards deſcribes him as a teacher only, (chap. vii. 14), "Now, about the midſt of the feaſt, Jeſus went up into the temple and taught."

As theſe arguments militate not only againſt the tenets of Dr. Prieſtley, but againſt Chriſtianity itſelf, we ſhall endeavour to remove the *veil* from the *face of Moſes*, and to make *Aaron's rod*, which might otherwiſe be turned into a *ſerpent, to bud, bloſſom, and bring forth fruit*. Our author's firſt argument ariſes from his miſunderſtanding the divinity of Chriſt, which is by no means incompatible with the unity of the Godhead, as delivered by Moſes. In his ſecond argument, "that Chriſt was deficient in the eſſential character "of a prophet, viz. predicting future events," the diſciple of Gamaliel is prodigiouſly miſtaken. His foretelling his own reſurrection from the dead on the third day after his deceaſe, and the deſtruction of Jeruſalem before the generation that heard the prediction had paſſed away, are prophecies as remarkable and ſtriking as any that are to be found in the Old Teſtament. The Meſſiah is repreſented in the Jewiſh ſcriptures as "a prophet like unto Moſes;"—"a prophet like "*unto me* ſhall the Lord your God raiſe up; him ſhall ye "*hear in all things*." And the reſemblance is evident and pointed. The legiſlator of the Jews, like the legiſlator of the Chriſtians, foretold future events only occaſionally. His chief object was to prove his divine miſſion by miracles, and to form a code of laws for the conduct of the Iſraelites. And in this he was followed by a greater prophet. When our author attacks Dr. Prieſtley he generally diſarms his antagoniſt; but when he attacks Chriſtianity itſelf, "he "kicketh againſt the pricks."

The following obſervations merit the ſerious attention of Dr. Prieſtley:

'Whether the generality of Chriſtians have juſt reaſon to pay divine honours to Jeſus, or no', as you obſerve page 4, is not my buſineſs at preſent to inquire. but ought to be ſettled among Chriſtians themſelves; and that, (if I may preſume to give my opinion in ſo weighty a cauſe) before you attempted to convert the Jews to Chriſtianity. For do but figure to yourſelf, dear ſir, how ridiculous it muſt appear for you to invite the Jews to embrace what you yourſelves do not rightly underſtand. This is ſuch an abſurdity, that I am ſurpriſed and aſtoniſhed when I reflect how it was poſſible that a divine and a philoſopher of your diſtinguiſhed rank in the republic of letters ſhould overlook. But, if I am

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not greatly miſtaken, I verily believe that the honour of Jeſus, or the propagation of Chriſtianity, are things of little moment in your ſerious thoughts, notwithſtanding all your boaſted ſincerity. If I have erred, I beg of you to bear with me; for it is the love of truth that obliges me to ſpeak out: and that I have juſt cauſe for entertaining this opinion, will appear clear to every candid and impartial mind; for, in your poſtſcript, page 54, you argue thus: "If, therefore, it be in your power to perſuade a heathen that God really ſpake to your anceſtors by Moſes, by the force of exactly ſimilar arguments you ought to acknowledge that the ſame great Being ſpake by Chriſt and the apoſtles: and, on whatever principles you reject the evidences of Chriſtian miracles, any perſon will be juſtified in rejecting thoſe on which the truth of your own religion reſts."

'Here we may perceive the complete deiſt under the moſt Jeſuitical argument; for if God ſpake to Moſes, why not ſpeak to Jeſus? and therefore, if you will not believe that God ſpake to Jeſus, I will not believe that he ſpake to Moſes. Now, therefore, you muſt either believe *both*, or I will believe *none*; for if you ſay that of Jeſus is falſe, I ſay that of Moſes is falſe alſo. *Ergo*, both are falſe.'

This commentary of David Levi, although ſevere, is fully warranted by Dr. Prieſtley's text *.

The preſent diſperſion of the Jews, and the long train of calamities which they have ſuffered during the courſe of ſeventeen centuries, our author imputes to the ſins of their anceſtors after the return from the Babyloniſh captivity, particularly to murder and fornication. Here the Levite ſhews himſelf unſkilled in the law, and errs *not knowing his own ſcriptures*. Under the Moſaic economy "the ſins of the "fathers were viſited upon the children to the third and "fourth generation;" but, when the theocracy ceaſed, this penal ſtatute was repealed. Hence we find Ezekiel, by the divine authority, abrogating this law of Moſes: "What "mean ye, that ye uſe this proverb concerning the land of "Iſrael, ſaying, the fathers have eaten ſour grapes and the "children's teeth are ſet on edge? As I live, ſaith the Lord, "ye ſhall not have occaſion any more to uſe this proverb in "Iſrael. The ſon ſhall not bear the iniquity of the father,

* This reminds us of a diſpute between a Jew and a Chriſtian, which took place about ten years ago. A Chriſtian, who had more zeal than knowledge, endeavouring to convert a Jew, happened unfortunately to bring all his proofs from the New Teſtament. The Jew, having heard his oration with much patience, calmly replied, "Sir, you are certainly diſtracted; I do not believe one word of your New Teſtament."—"Not believe the New Teſtament?"—"No."—"Then d—n me if I believe one word of your *Old*."

"nor

" nor the father the iniquity of the ſon; the ſoul that " ſinneth it ſhall die *."

In explaining Daniel's prophecy of the ſeventy weeks, our author bewilders himſelf ſtill more, and is not only inconſiſtent with chronology, but with common-ſenſe. His idea is this: As a captivity of four hundred years in Egypt was neceſſary for the nation of the Jews *only* to arrive at the true knowledge of God, ſo a much longer captivity became requiſite to bring all the nations of the earth to the true faith, as the means ought to be proportioned to the effect. This is to be obtained by bringing the Jews low in their long captivity, ſo that when they are redeemed from it, and all the outcaſts of Iſrael are gathered together, and the reſurrection of the dead takes place, which is to follow immediately, all the nations of the earth will receive the kingly government of God, and the firm belief of his unity be unalterably fixed in their hearts.

If the reſurrection of the dead, and the end of the world, are to take place immediately after the reſtoration of the Jews to the land of Canaan, their long captivity ſerves no purpoſe at all.

In his ſecond letter, which contains a compariſon between the miſſion of Chriſt and that of Moſes, our author repeats many common objections againſt Chriſtianity, which have been frequently anſwered.

Upon the whole, our Jewiſh ſcribe is ſucceſsful in demoliſhing the viſionary ſtructure of Dr. Prieſtley. Little David has tript up the heels of the great Goliath; and the Levite has laid the philoſopher at his feet, who will henceforth have good cauſe to ponder the apoſtolical advice, " Beware of the " *conciſion*."

ART. III. *The Arenarius of Archimedes; tranſlated from the Greek, with Notes and Illuſtrations. To which is added, the Diſſertation of Chriſtopher Clavius on the ſame Subject, from the Latin. By G. Anderſon, Wadham-College, Oxford.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnſon. London, 1787.

AFTER the numberleſs encomiums which have conſtantly been beſtowed on the writings of Archimedes for near two thouſand years, it would be ſuperfluous for us to ſay any thing reſpecting the general merit of

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* Ezek. xviii. 2, 3, 20.

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his works. Of thoſe ſtill preſerved, the performance before us is, perhaps, one of the leaſt intereſting; and the reaſon of its now being preſented to the public in an Engliſh dreſs, while all the reſt remain untranſlated, we are unable to aſſign, unleſs the tranſlator intended it as a ſpecimen previous to his undertaking the whole. If this be the caſe, we heartily wiſh him ſucceſs, and ſufficient encouragement from the public to engage him in this very uſeful undertaking.

The poſſibility of numbering the ſands, the demonſtration of which is the deſign of this work, muſt appear to every mathematician an idea very barren in its conſequences, and capable of producing very little intereſt. But the author, in order to ſhew the comprehenſive powers of numeration, and to prove that there can exiſt no magnitude, however large, whoſe component parts are ſo ſmall as to be inexpreſſible by numbers, has extended his calculations to the boundaries of the ſolar ſyſtem, and enumerated the particles of ſand which might compoſe a maſs of that magnitude. This has given him occaſion to ſpeak of the relative magnitudes of the earth, moon, and ſun; their diſtances from each other; and the apparent diameter of the ſun, as found by an inſtrument which he deſcribes. Theſe circumſtances, together with the opinions of the ancient philoſophers on the ſame ſubjects, which are occaſionally interſperſed, and the ſolution of ſome curious geometrical problems ariſing from this extenſive view of the ſubject, afford much uſeful, and not unentertaining information. The notes ſubjoined contain remarks on ſome peculiar expreſſions in the Greek, and the various ſignifications given in different Latin tranſlations; a compariſon between the ſyſtem of the univerſe as deſcribed by Ariſtarchus the Samian, and that eſtabliſhed by the works of Copernicus, Newton, and Bradley; a deſcription of the inſtruments made uſe of by Archimedes and Ptolemy for determining the ſun's magnitude; and of the manner in which the dimenſions of the pupil of the eye were obtained by Rabbi Levi, as an addition to that uſed by the author in this work. After the notes is a tranſlation of a diſſertation of Clavius on the poſſibility of numbering the ſands; which may be thought curious, as it ſhews, in ſome degree, how far the philoſophy of the Greeks exceeded that of the ſixteenth century.

A preface of conſiderable length is prefixed to this tranſlation, containing a ſuccinct account of the antiquity of arithmetic; of the improvements made by the Greeks, and particularly by Archimedes; of the invention of algebra, and its being uſed by the more early Greeks, &c.

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Of this part of the work we ſhall only remark that it appears tolerably well written, and the ſubjects, as far as the limits would permit, clearly treated, though perhaps with rather too much partiality towards the author, and the philoſophers he has mentioned. This is a fault into which moſt of the admirers of ancient learning have fallen. From the excellence of thoſe works which are extant, they attempt to form an eſtimation of thoſe whoſe titles only remain, till the mind, fired with an enthuſiaſtic admiration of the genius of antiquity, diſcovers arguments to ſhew that every improvement of ſcience was known to the ancients; and that nature, exhauſted of her ſtores, had left nothing for modern proficients but to trace the paths and inveſtigate the footſteps of their ancient predeceſſors. That the ancients excelled as inventors in every branch of ſcience to which they particularly applied their talents, we do not pretend to deny; that in Geometry, as far as reſpects linear conſtruction, their works have been eſteemed the chief models for imitation, is allowed; but in all the ſciences, much remained to be done before they were brought to the ſtate of perfection in which they now are; and much ſtill remains to be done before they arrive as near to perfection as the nature of things will admit. Nor is he who ſuggeſts a method entirely new of improvement in any ſcience, much inferior to the original inventor. The diſcovery of the cypher and its excellent uſes, however trifling it may now appear, is alone ſufficient to ſhew in what a rude ſtate the arithmetic of the ancients muſt have been; and with whatever ingenuity Archimedes has managed his calculations, they are ſtill ſubject to innumerable repetitions, which, to an Engliſh reader, would appear a heavy and prolix method of computation. How far the ancients might be acquainted with algebra, is no eaſy matter to determine at this diſtant period; if they diſcovered the ſolution of their problems by it, they ſeem to have been determined to conceal it from poſterity, with a view to make the method appear the more wonderful; a conduct which, though praiſed in the ancients, would be ſeverely cenſured in the moderns. Of the mechanical knowledge of the ancients we know but little; their machines are celebrated in poetry, and, to dignify the ſubject, are deſcribed as performing things utterly impoſſible, except in theory; and of theſe mighty engines the conſtruction of none can be found which are not far excelled by the works of every modern mechanic. Nothing can certainly ſet the falſe taſte of antiquity in a clearer light than their profeſſing to deſpiſe every branch of mechanical ſcience.

ſcience. As this particular is ſuccinctly treated of by Mr. Anderſon in his preface to this tranſlation, we ſhall preſent his account of it to our readers:

'To apply mathematical knowledge to mechanical inventions and experiments was regarded as derogatory to the ſcience, and unworthy a geometrician. Archytas, who firſt applied geometry to mechanics, met with the reprehenſion of Plato, who eſteemed the mathematical ſciences of too ſublime a nature to be made common. This opinion in general prevailed; and mechanical and experimental knowledge was almoſt univerſally neglected. Archimedes appears to have been one of the firſt who, after the time of Archytas and Eudoxus, applied the ſciences of geometry and mechanics to their natural illuſtration; and is equally celebrated for his inventions in the one, as for his extenſive knowledge in the other. But he, according to Plutarch, was ſo far influenced by the then prevalent opinion of Plato, that he would not commit to writing any account of his mechanical inventions * (though this, indeed, may be accounted for from other reaſons). Mechanical experiments being thus neglected and deſpiſed, no other method of accounting for the various operations of nature remained but that of framing hypotheſes; which, depending only upon reaſoning drawn from probability, were defended by the followers of one ſect, and rejected and confuted by thoſe of another.'

This writer next proceeds to give an account of the ſyſtem of the world, as propoſed by Ariſtarchus the Samian; with which, as it is curious and only extant in this work, we ſhall conclude this article:

'According to his (Ariſtarchus's) hypotheſes, neither the fixed ſtars nor the ſun are ſubject to any motion, but the earth annually revolves round the ſun in the circumferences of a circle, in the centre of which the ſun remains fixed; and the ſphere of the fixed ſtars, whoſe centre he ſuppoſes to coincide with the ſun's, is of ſuch immenſe magnitude that the circle in whoſe periphery the earth is ſuppoſed to revolve round the ſun, bears no greater proportion to the diſtance of the fixed ſtars, than the centre of a ſphere does to its ſuperficies.'

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* What theſe reaſons are Mr. Anderſon has not informed us; probably he alludes to Archimedes' being ſlain at the taking of Syracuſe; which, happening immediately after the making of his machines for the defence of that city, he might not have ſufficient time to write on the ſubject of their conſtruction.

ART. IV. *Letter to Dr. Prieſtley; in which the Author attempts to prove, by one preſcriptive Argument, that the Divinity of Jeſus Chriſt was a primitive Tenet of Chriſtianity. By the Rev. Alexander Geddes, LL. D.* 8vo. 1s. ſtitched. Faulder. London, 1787.

THIS very candid and ingenious epiſtle contains ſome arguments, which have ſeldom been employed, to prove the divinity of Jeſus Chriſt. Having profeſſed his belief that Dr. Prieſtley is a Chriſtian, (and, indeed, who can deny it when the doctor has always ſaid ſo himſelf?) the author proceeds to lay before his correſpondent the one great motive which makes him believe the divinity of our Saviour, which convinces him that he exiſted before his appearance in human fleſh; and that adoration is due to him from his followers, as to the only begotten Son of God. He reduces the point in diſpute to a narrow compaſs, and ſtrips it of all extraneous matter. The figures, the alluſions, and the prophecies of the Old Teſtament, he gives up at preſent, conſcious that, by themſelves, they preſent to the unpreposſeſſed reader no explicit idea of abſolute divinity in the promiſed Meſſiah. He does not even avail himſelf of the arguments that may be drawn from the New Teſtament, ſtrong as he confeſſes them to be; but, conſidering them at beſt as but equivocal teſtimonies, he attempts to find out a proper touchſtone to determine their genuine value. It will not be denied, ſays Dr. Geddes, that the apoſtles were ſufficiently inſtructed with regard to the perſon of their maſter. For if the Holy Ghoſt was to teach them all truth, he would have executed his commiſſion very imperfectly if he had left them in ignorance of ſo capital an article as the divinity or mere humanity of the Author of that religion which they were to promulgate to the world. To have left them in any doubt on ſo important a point, would have been to expoſe them to the ſad dilemma of impiety or idolatry. If the writings of the apoſtles, and of the apoſtolical fathers, are not ſufficiently explicit on this ſubject, the decrees of the early councils of the church, particularly of the Nicean, will remove the doubt, and produce full conviction. The fathers aſſembled at Nice were fallible men, but they were men of common ſenſe and common integrity. Many of them were remarkable for the ſanctity of their lives; ſome had ſhewn the higheſt degree of fortitude in confeſſing Jeſus before tyrants and perſecutors: and there were others whoſe learning and abilities would have adorned the moſt enlightened

lightened age. In ſhort, it may be ſaid, without exaggeration, that they were the moſt reſpectable body of eccleſiaſtics that ever aſſembled together, and the freeſt from every ſort of control on liberty of conſcience and freedom of debate. But ſuppoſing them only to poſſeſs common penetration and integrity, is it in the ſmalleſt degree probable that three hundred and eighteen of the principal paſtors in the Chriſtian church, convoked from the three parts of the then known world, could poſſibly combine to eſtabliſh a doctrine different from that which they had hitherto taught their reſpective flocks, and which they had themſelves received from their predeceſſors in the miniſtry?

But no fact in hiſtory is better aſcertained than that the Nicean council were unanimous in their belief of the divinity and pre-exiſtence of Jeſus Chriſt; his coeternity and coequality with the Father were the only points diſputed by the Arian party. Either, then, the divinity of Jeſus, at that time univerſally believed, had been a tenet of primitive Chriſtianity, or an univerſal corruption which had taken place of the true primitive tenet, his ſimple humanity.

This, indeed, Dr. Prieſtley has been long labouring to prove, but with little ſucceſs. He has carefully collected all thoſe texts of ſcripture that prove Jeſus to be truly man, which his opponents have never called in queſtion, and has endeavoured to explain away thoſe other texts which prove his divinity. From the Chriſtian writers of the three firſt centuries he has learned, that there had exiſted certain Ebionites and others who believed Chriſt to be a mere man. Thoſe Ebionites, by a ſtrange metamorphoſis, he has converted into the orthodox believers, though they were univerſally reprobated as heretics; heretics, too, who conſidered themſelves as under an obligation of conforming, in all things, to the Jewiſh ceremonial law, and making Jeruſalem the place of adoration.

Diſputes aroſe in Alexandria, towards the end of the third century, about the mode of conceiving a myſterious article of Chriſtian belief. But both Homouſians and Homoiouſians were perfectly agreed with regard to the divinity and preexiſtence of Chriſt. The church at that time was thrown into a ferment, which produced one of the moſt violent and inveterate conteſts that ever divided the Chriſtian world. But is it not aſtoniſhing, that, in this furious conflict, when every arſenal was ranſacked for arms, every old record explored, and every latent authority dragged to light, and the queſtion agitated with all the ſkill of logic, and force of eloquence, in above forty different ſynods, in the

courſe of a century—is it not aſtoniſhing, that, in none of thoſe aſſemblies, neither at Alexandria, nor Antioch, nor Ceſaria, nor Sardica, nor Jeruſalem, nor Conſtantinople, nor Sirmium, nor Milan, nor Rome, nor Rimini, there ſhould be a ſingle voice raiſed in favour of Socinianiſm, a ſingle pen employed to defend it, a ſingle authority quoted in its ſupport? It may be ſaid, that Socinianiſm was not entirely without its witneſſes, particularly Paul of Antioch, and Photinus of Sirmium. But what was the conſequence of their teaching theſe opinions? They were regarded as blaſphemous innovators, threatened with immediate depoſition, unleſs they retracted, and in the end depoſed and excommunicated by both parties.

This argument, which our learned and acute author purſues at conſiderable length, we ſuggeſted in our Review for April, p. 284. We ſhall now add a ſingle reflection. It has been aſſerted by the ſupporters of Socinianiſm, that the deification of dead men, which prevailed in the heathen world, might give riſe, among the Gentile converts to Chriſtianity, to the practice of paying adoration to Jeſus Chriſt, although it had not been introduced by the apoſtles*. But this hypotheſis is without foundation. The cuſtom of deifying dead men, though aſſerted by hiſtorians as well as divines, never prevailed in the heathen world. Deſpotic monarchs, indeed, who were worſhipped while alive, have ſometimes received the ſame honours after their death. But there is not a ſingle inſtance in the records of hiſtory of poſthumous adoration being paid to a legiſlator, a philoſopher, or a prophet. Moſes was not deified by the Jews; nor Zoroaſter by the Perſians; nor Confucius by the Chineſe; nor Lycurgus, Solon, or Socrates, by the Greeks; nor Mohammed by the Turks; nor would Jeſus Chriſt have received the adoration of the Chriſtian world unleſs, from the earlieſt ages, they had believed in his divinity.

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* Vide Farmer, &c.

ART. V. *Tranſactions of the Society inſtituted at London for Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce; with the Premiums offered in the Year* 1787. *Vol. V.* 8vo. 4s. boards. Dodſley. London, 1787.

AS the good effects reſulting from the inſtitution of this ſociety become every year more evident, its tranſactions acquire an additional claim to the public attention; and we have the pleaſure to find that the volume now before us contains a variety of intereſting papers on uſeful and important ſubjects.

The firſt, which relates to agriculture, affords an account of a plantation formed at Butsfield, in the biſhoprick of Durham, by Thomas White, of Retford, Nottinghamſhire, Eſq. a gentleman to whom ſeveral medals have been adjudged, at different times, by this ſociety. Mr. White appears to have ſet about the incloſing and forming of this large plantation with great judgment; and the obſervations which he makes on the method of conducting ſuch improvements, are proportionably valuable. He informs us he has long found from experience, that, in unſheltered ſituations, thoſe trees thrive beſt which are not above one foot, or eighteen inches high, when planted; as they furniſh a ſhorter lever than taller trees, which, by their own force operating with the power of the winds, are conſtantly diſtreſſing the root, by breaking the young fibres; an effect extremely injurious to the progreſs of vegetation. To remedy this, it is common for inexperienced planters to place the trees ſo low in the earth, as to be, in a great meaſure, out of the reach of the ſolar influence; but this practice proves equally hurtful to vegetation. Mr. White, therefore, pays more regard to the ſtrength of the ſtem, and fibrous ſtate of the roots, than to the height or age of the trees, which he has always planted very ſmall.

Mr. White chooſes alſo to intermix the different trees in his plantations as much as poſſible; not only by way of eſtabliſhing a ſucceſſion, but from an opinion that ground ſo planted will produce more uſeful wood; and that the earth itſelf furniſhes a heterogeneous maſs of matter, containing the proper food for different plants; and that every ſpecies draws a peculiar kind of nouriſhment, neceſſary for its own ſupport. If this opinion be well founded, and we muſt confeſs it appears highly probable, Mr. White obſerves, that a promiſcuous arrangement of various kinds of trees muſt be the beſt mode of diſpoſing them; as each kind will,

with the greater facility, ſearch out and obtain its ſhare of proper nouriſhment, without robbing its neighbours; which, being plants of a different genus, will partake of that aliment which is allotted for their ſupport. On the other hand, if trees of the ſame kind, and which draw from the earth the ſame ſpecific nouriſhment, are planted very near each other upon the ſame common bed, they muſt ſoon exhauſt the ſoil of that nutriment peculiar to their nature, and muſt dwindle of courſe.

The following obſervations may prove worthy the attention of gentlemen who would uſefully occupy their waſte lands with the planting of trees:

'The trees in general flouriſh very well in both plots, particularly the larch, birch, geen-tree, Scotch fir, and mountain aſh; amongſt which, the former diſtinguiſhes itſelf very much, being in all places conſiderably larger, and in ſome near twice the ſize of any other kind; and it appears alſo to afford a very ſalutary ſhade and ſhelter to thoſe trees that partake of its influence: this convinces me of a great error I have committed in planting Scotch firs, by way of nurſes, which do not appear to anſwer the intended purpoſe of advancing the growth of the other trees; on the contrary, I find them great tyrants amongſt their neighbours, from the ſtrength and great extent of their branches; alſo from the cloſe covert of their leaves, which not only exclude the air, but prevent a due admiſſion of the rains.

'The larch is not only ſuperior in beauty and hardineſs, but furniſhes more durable and valuable timber; and is likewiſe a more tender and friendly nurſe to more delicate trees, being furniſhed with a great number of ſmall pliant branches, well garniſhed with leaves; and which, from their flexible quality, will yield and give place to the adjacent trees, and are not ſubject to laſh and buffet them; they alſo more readily admit the rains than the Scotch fir, and are not liable to receive injury in ſnowy ſeaſons, when the branches of the latter are frequently mutilated, and the trees ſometimes totally deſtroyed; the effects of which I have too fatally experienced.

'I think it is probable other planters may have been often miſled by a miſtaken idea of the ſuperior hardineſs and nurturing quality of the fir; or from not being acquainted with any other more proper tree to ſubſtitute in its place, have adopted it; or, I ſhould conceive, they would not have planted ſuch numbers of this truly gloomy and unpleaſant plant: in reſpect to ſhelter, it muſt be allowed to contribute in the winter more than moſt others, particularly the deciduous kinds; but, as far as relates to the propagation of the plantations themſelves, I am of opinion that internal ſhelter at this dreary ſeaſon, when the powers of vegetation are totally locked up, is of much leſs conſequence than in the more genial months, when the trees are making their ſhoots; the internal warmth of a plantation muſt then greatly facilitate the operations of nature; and the larch, being one of the moſt early trees we have in the ſpring, is at that time

time in full foliage; and I conſider it the moſt promiſing tree I have met with to aid her in that neceſſary work; and, as I find it not eaſy to ſeparate pecuniary gratifications from thoſe of taſte, notwithſtanding my general diſlike to the Scotch firs, I am not ſo much their enemy as totally to exclude them from my plantations, as the ſable hue produced by their foliage has a good effect when properly interſperſed and blended with the more vivid tints of other more pleaſing and lively trees. I ſhall, beſides thoſe that are intended to remain for timber on the barren parts, leave a number of them upon my beſt ground, for the purpoſe of decoration; the remainder I am now exterminating with all poſſible vigour.'

The next paper contains experiments and obſervations on the culture of turnips, by George Winter, of Charlton, near Briſtol, Eſq. In this paper Mr. Winter ſtrongly recommends the advantages of drilling, from a perſuaſion that the common mode of agriculture reſpecting turnips, as well as other kinds of ſeed, and all ſorts of grain, is extremely erroneous. The ſeed, he obſerves, is ſown broad caſt; the ſcorching ſun often injures it before it can be covered; the treading of the horſes, by harrowing, buſhing, and rolling, ſo hardens a loamy or ſtiff ſoil as entirely to exclude the air, dews, &c. and prevent the ſeed from vegetating; beſides that near the half is deſtroyed by the preſſure of the horſes feet. Theſe are circumſtances which certainly merit conſideration.

The third paper in the collection conſiſts of a letter from Thomas Boothby Parkyns, Eſq. on the culture and uſes of the plant called Racine de Diſette. This is the root of which an account has lately been publiſhed by Dr. Lettſom. Mr. Parkyns's letter is dated the 13th of May, 1786, upwards of a twelvemonth before the appearance of that publication. It ſeems therefore a little ſtrange that Dr. Lettſom, in the courſe of his inquiries on the ſubject, ſhould never have heard of this communication; or, if he did, that he ſhould not ingenuouſly mention it.

Next follows the deſcription of a machine for cutting chaff, invented and made by Mr. James Pike, watchmaker, of Newton-Abbot, Devonſhire. This is ſucceeded by letters from Mr. Malcolm, of Kennington nurſery, Surrey, and Mr. Boote, of Athurſton upon Stower, near Stratford upon Avon, relative to drill huſbandry.

The chemical department contains a method of preventing ſtone retorts from breaking; or ſtopping them when cracked, during any chemical operation, without loſing any of the contained ſubject. This method, which will prove uſeful to philoſophical chemiſts, is recommended by Mr. Thomas Willis, Hermitage, Wapping. He informs us he

has always found it neceſſary to uſe a previous coating for filling up the interſtices of the earth or ſtone. This is made by diſſolving two ounces of borax in a pint of boiling water, and adding to the ſolution as much ſlaked lime as will make it into a thin paſte. It may be ſpread with a common painter's bruſh over ſeveral retorts, which, when dry, are ready for the preſerving coat. The intention of this firſt coating is, that the ſubſtances thus ſpread over, readily vitrifying in the fire, prevent any of the diſtilling matters from pervading the retort, but does not prevent it from cracking. Whenever he wants to uſe any of theſe coated retorts, after he has charged them with the ſubſtance to be diſtilled, he prepares a thin paſte, made with common linſeed oil and ſlaked lime well mixed, and perfectly plaſtic, that it may eaſily ſpread. He adviſes that the retorts be covered with this all over, except that part of the neck which is to be inſerted into the receiver. This is readily done with a painter's bruſh; the coating will be ſufficiently dry in a day or two, and they will then be fit for uſe.

The papers in the polite arts contain a letter from Miſs Emma Jane Greenland, relative to the method of painting in wax, ſaid to be that which was anciently practiſed by the Grecians, and recommended as free from all the diſadvantages incident to painting in oil. This is followed by a deſcription of Mr. Cheeſe's machine for teaching muſic to people deprived of ſight, and to enable them to preſerve their compoſitions, in the act of compoſing, without the aſſiſtance of a copyiſt.

In the article of manufactures we find two letters on the breeding and management of ſilk-worms in England; one of them by Miſs Rhodes, ſome letters from whom, on the ſame ſubject, were publiſhed in the fourth volume of theſe Tranſactions; and the other from the Rev. Mr. Swaine, of Pucklechurch, near Briſtol. The ſubject is of great importance to our ſilk manufacture, and merits the moſt diligent attention.

In mechanics the only object is a hydraulic engine, invented and made by the late Mr. William Weſtgarth, of Colecleugh, in the county of Northumberland. This machine is founded on one of the moſt ſimple principles of ſtatics, viz. that of a heavier column of water raiſing a lighter. The idea of ſuch an expedient is not new; but Mr. Weſtgarth is the firſt who obviated thoſe difficulties which attended the practical execution of machines intended to work on this principle.

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The article of colonies and trade, which forms one of the diviſions in theſe Tranſactions, conſiſts of letters relative to a red earth found in Jamaica; which promiſes to be of great utility to that and the other Weſt-India iſlands, in the conſtruction of ciſterns, reſervoirs, canals, and many different purpoſes; though the expence of freightage may preclude the uſe of it in this country.

The remaining articles in this volume are, Rewards adjudged in 1786; Preſents received; Liſt of Officers; Premiums offered in 1787; and a Liſt of Members. It appears from the laſt of theſe, that a number of reſpectable members has lately been added to the Society.

ART. VI. *Hydraulic and Nautical Obſervations on the Currents in the Atlantic Ocean, forming an hypothetical Theorem for Inveſtigation. Addreſſed to Navigators by Governor Pownall, F.R.S and F.S.A. To which are annexed ſome Notes by Dr. Franklin.* 4to. Sold by Robert Sayer, Fleet-Street. 1787.

THE principal object of the ingenious writer is to inveſtigate the cauſe, as well as to aſcertain the direction and extent, of the current which ſets conſtantly through the gulf of Florida, and is thence denominated the *gulf ſtream*. The general efforts of this ſtream have been long known to navigators, but its limits have never been obſerved with that preciſion which the importance of the ſubject demands. A more accurate knowledge of its track acroſs the Atlantic would enable the ſkilful navigator to avail himſelf of, or avoid, the force of the ſtream, and thereby greatly facilitate the intercourſe between Europe and America.

With reſpect to the cauſe, it is ſuppoſed to be ſimilar to that aſſigned by Monſieur de Grenier for the periodical currents which ſet, during the oppoſite monſoons, into and out of the Perſian Gulf and Red Sea; theſe winds protruding a vaſt body of water before them, which he thinks will account for thoſe phenomena. In like manner, the Atlantic trade-wind, between the tropics, blowing *conſtantly in the ſame direction*, protrudes a body of water into the Gulf of Mexico, which finds an outlet through the Gulf of Florida, and in ſuch force and quantity as to throw an expanding ſtream quite acroſs the Atlantic to the African ſhore; whence returning again in an orbit, with the protruded water, to the Gulf of Mexico, a conſtant circulation is kept up. It is ſaid the Litchfield man of war, which was caſt away

away ſome years ago on the coaſt of Africa, felt the effect of this current ſetting in upon the ſhore. At page 8 he ſays,

'The writer of this paper begs that, in the obſervations and reaſoning which follow, he may not be conſidered as building up a theory without foundation: he thinks nothing can be more contrary to, and more obſtructive of, real ſcience than ſuch viſions: yet, on the other hand, where there are a number of diſperſed facts, which, though not ſpecifically defined in the form of experiment, are, however, practically known, ſo as to become capable of combination ſufficient for uſe, he thinks the ſo far combining theſe facts as to form an hypothetic theorem (not as a matter demonſtrated, but as a ſubject of inveſtigation), is exactly philoſophical, and conformable to the ſtricteſt line of mathematical reaſoning.

'Under this predicament he begs to ſubmit the following mode of reaſoning on the currents found in the Atlantic Ocean; as leading to practical rules for the navigation of that ſea, and as a foundation for queries, the inveſtigation of which may be of the higheſt import to a deciſive facility of the intercourſe between Europe and America.

'This paper here takes up the current of the gulf ſtream, as it ſets along the New England coaſts, where we before left it. It commences with facts actually obſerved. The northern edge of this current lies in the meridian of the iſland Nantucket, in north latitude 38° 30′, and in the meridian of George's Bank; its northern edge is in north latitude 39°, where its courſe is E. N. E. In the meridian of the Iſle of Sable its northern edge is in north latitude 41° 20′ or 30′; and here its courſe is E. S. E. and S. E. by E. The ſouthern is not ſo decidedly marked or known.

'This paper will now, as a leading illuſtration by analogy, not as matter of proof, ſuppoſe for a moment an imaginary line of coaſt croſſing the Atlantic from Nova Scotia to the Canaries. That ſuppoſed, he ventures to aſſert, on the analogy of facts ſtated above, reſpecting the Indian ſeas, that this Atlantic current, thus brought, according to actual obſervation, to north latitude 41° 30′, and there ſetting in an E. S E. courſe, would continue its courſe along this ſuppoſed coaſt E. S. E. until it had croſſed the Atlantic, and approached the African coaſt.

'Quitting ſuppoſition, this paper next proceeds to ſtate facts:

'1. If two lines are drawn acroſs the Atlantic Ocean, one from the ſouthernmoſt part of the Canaries to Halifax, in Nova Scotia; the other from the northernmoſt part of the Madeiras, by the Azores to Cape Race in Newfoundland; the ſpace contained within theſe lines, though not (as above ſuppoſed) a line of coaſt, will yet be found, in fact and truth, to be a broken line of iſlands, rocks, breakers, and banks. Now, as theſe viſible rocks muſt have their baſe on ſome elevated ground, as the breakers muſt be occaſioned by ſome ſunken rocks or elevated ground, and as the banks muſt ſhoal off gradually, however ſteep, the ground within this ſpace thus croſſing the Atlantic is in ſtrict fact an elevated though broken line of ground.

'2. Now

' 2. Now the current to the ſouthward of this ſpace, ſo far as it hath been obſerved, hath been generally found, in fact, ſetting along this line, in a courſe between the eaſt and ſouth.

' 3. Where this line is broken by the intervention of deep channels, or is diſcontinued by intervals of ſea, without ſoundings, ſo far muſt the general effect of the current running along a line of coaſt, as above ſuppoſed, not take place; and, in thoſe channels and intervals of deep ſea, currents will diverge off from this general courſe eaſt, or perhaps north, eſpecially when the winds blow ſtrong from the ſouthern board. Now the fact is, as the writer's information ſtands, that a current ſets off from the general courſe, and runs eaſt, between the iſlands Pico and St. Michael of the Azores. There is alſo a current diverges off from the general courſe, and ſets eaſt, between the Madeiras and the Canaries, directly in and upon the African coaſt. The general current, however, to the ſouthward of the Canaries holds its general ſouth-eaſtern courſe, and ſets in, generally ſpeaking, in that direction, upon the African coaſts in thoſe parts.

' Over and above the protruſion of the tropical, or trade winds, which are the firſt and original cauſe of theſe general currents in the Atlantic Ocean, as above deſcribed, the level of the Ocean on the African coaſt, between the tropics, being depreſſed by the evacuation of waters continually blown and running off from that coaſt, and protruded weſtward, the protruded current which we have traced acroſs the Atlantic, ſetting in and upon the African coaſt, muſt thence run down an inclined plain towards this depreſſed level, along theſe coaſts (as to their general courſe) ſouth-eaſterly, whatever may be the temporary and local deviations from this general courſe, occaſioned by local and temporary circumſtances of particular coaſts and ſeaſons. Now this ſtate of the matter, compared by its cauſes and in its effects is the actual fact.

' This current thus revolving in an orbit (which, ſpeaking generally, may be ſaid to be a defined orbit) round the Atlantic Ocean in a continual circulation, it is conformable to the laws of hydraulics that there ſhould be, in the ſpace included within the inner edges of this orbit, an eddy, into which all floating ſubſtances, ſuch as wood and weeds, which fall into the general current, ſhall be finally abſorbed. Now the fact is, that weeds called the Saragoſa weeds, as alſo the gulf weeds, have been obſerved, as found at certain and aſcertained latitudes and longitudes, within the area of the orbit of this general current, and nearly on what may be ſuppoſed the inner edge thereof, as in north latitude 34° weſt longitude from London 41°; again, in north latitude 33° weſt longitude 37°; the breadth of the ſpace within which theſe weeds are here found is about 2° 45; again, in weſt longitude 27°. The northern boundary in which theſe weeds are here found is north latitude 34°, and the ſouthern boundary 19°. Now whether the ſpace in which theſe floating ſubſtances have been regularly found, partakes of the nature of an eddy, or is the reflow of a lee current on the inner edges of the main circulating current, has never been obſerved, much leſs examined with that attention and accuracy which a circumſtance ſo important to the navigation of the Atlantic Ocean deſerves. The firſt navigators to the Weſt-Indies and America

America obſerved and followed the general currents out and home; thoſe who followed them followed mechanically on authority; and, even to the days of this enlightened age, very few if any obſervations have been made as to the eddy or lee currents in the great ſpace of ocean or area included within this orbit, at leaſt none as yet applicable to uſe and practice.'

On the ſame hypotheſis of *bodies of water protruded by winds*, he endeavours, at p. 13, to account for thoſe *high* "*raging tides* on the Dutch, Flemiſh, and Britiſh coaſts, "which ſo much ſurmount all ordinary defences raiſed "againſt them."

'This obſervation of the manner in which the effect of protruſion of the winds, as well as attraction, operates on the currents and tides of this German ſea, the writer of this paper here incidentally makes, in order to ſuggeſt to the landholders of theſe parts the neceſſity there is of giving attention to theſe circumſtances, and their combination, and of taking preparatory precaution; when this combination is, in event, to obviate and guard off many of thoſe evils which they have repeatedly ſuffered, at leaſt to guard them againſt being ſurpriſed, although perhaps adequate defence may not be in their power.

'Having ſtated as above, not a theory without foundation, or a matter as proved, but an hypothetical theorem for inveſtigation on experiment, the writer, inſtead of drawing concluſions, will cloſe his obſervations (after pointing out ſome inſtances of the uſe of them) by propoſing ſome queries as matters well worthy of trial and inquiry.

'Skilful navigators, who have acquired a knowledge of the extent to which the northern edge of the gulf ſtream reaches on the New-England coaſt, have learnt in their voyages to New-England, New-York, or Pennſylvania, to paſs the Banks of Newfoundland in about 44° or 45° north latitude, to ſail thence in a courſe between the northern edge of the gulf ſtream, as above deſcribed, and the ſhoals and banks of Sable Iſland, George's Bank, and Nantucket, by which they make better and quicker paſſages from England to America.

'By an examination of the currents in the higher latitudes of the northern parts of the Atlantic, and of their courſe along the coaſts of Greenland, and the Eſkimaux ſhores, if they ſhould prove ſuch as the reaſoning in this paper leads to, a much quicker paſſage yet may be found.

'By a particular and ſtill more accurate examination of the northern and ſouthern edge of the gulf ſtream, of the variation of theſe circumſtances, as winds and ſeaſons vary; an experimental aſcertaining what, where, and of what nature, the lee currents on the edges both inner and outer of the gulf ſtream are; great facilities and aſſiſtance muſt be derived to navigation. The knowledge of this would lead to the aſcertaining the eddies or other partial currents in the great ſpace of ocean included within the great circulating current. The

knowledge of the weſtern edge of the current which ſets ſouth along the coaſts of Africa, and of all its variations, as alſo of the lee currents upon that edge, would be of eſſential uſe in navigating to (and perhaps from) the Weſt Indies. A practical knowledge of the variable currents, and how they vary under operation of various cauſes, in the ſpace aforenamed, as running acroſs the Atlantic might be of great benefit in forwarding a quick paſſage from America, perhaps in ſhortening the paſſage thither in winter. Various other uſes of this inquiry might be pointed out; but to have marked that this hypothetic theorem is not without its uſe, is ſufficient.'

He then concludes with ſome judicious queries for future inveſtigation, which tend to aſcertain many eſſential particulars relative to the gulf ſtream; and therefore certainly merit the attention of all future voyagers, who wiſh to perfect or to improve the navigation of the Atlantic Ocean.

This ſmall work is accompanied with a neat map of the Atlantic Ocean, exhibiting the courſe of the ſtream out of the gulf, quite acroſs the ocean, and ſerves to illuſtrate the deſcription contained in the book itſelf.

ART. VII. *The Hiſtory of Miſs Greville. In Three Volumes. By the Author of Intereſting Memoirs.* 12mo. 9s. ſewed. Cadell. London, 1787.

THE nomenclature and claſſification invented by Sterne for *travellers* will ſerve, with little variation, for *readers*. There are *idle* readers, *inquiſitive* readers, *ſentimental* readers, and readers of *neceſſity*. The firſt and largeſt claſs comprehends thoſe pitiable beings who poſſeſs no power of ſelf-amuſement; whoſe minds, deſtitute of native energy, depend for ever on extraneous ſupport. To thoſe, any thing in the form of a HISTORY is acceptable—be it the hiſtory of Rome, or the Hiſtory of Tom Thumb, or the Hiſtory of Miſs Greville. The ſecond are not ſuch mere gluttons of amuſement; ſome bait for curioſity is neceſſary to attract them; but, when hooked, they may be drawn along by the ſlendereſt hair. The third delight chiefly in ſolemn and ſorrowful matters; and, having little acquaintance with real life, they have little reliſh for juſt repreſentations of it. The laſt are no other than ourſelves, and our fellow-labourers in the arduous work of reviewing, upon whom a neceſſity is laid of reading equally the works of genius and of dulneſs.

We heſitate not to pronounce that the Hiſtory of Miſs Greville will be favourably received by all theſe claſſes. It will

will fill the hand and eye of the *idle* reader from dinner-time to ſupper-time, and from ſupper-time to ſleeping-time, when he will ſay, "Thank heaven, the day is done!" The *inquiſitive* reader will be engaged by the opening of the ſtory to proceed rapidly; he will ſkip many pages of excellent morality and divinity in vain purſuit of adventures; and ſee through the whole buſineſs much ſooner than he expected. The enjoyment of the *ſentimental* reader will be ſtill ſuperior from the wondertul pathos contained in theſe volumes. And the *neceſſary* reader will take a piece of paper, and write as follows;

The hiſtory now before us contains theſe incidents: Miſs Julia Greville, an amiable young lady, accidentally meets an amiable young gentleman, which meeting ſhe herſelf thus deſcribes:

'Retiring into a hermitage, in a more ſhaded part of the wood, which was covered with moſs, and adorned with antick roots of trees, I ſat down, and, cloſing my book, reſigned myſelf to "the dream confuſed of careleſs ſolitude." From this, however, I was ſuddenly rouſed by the appearance of a gentleman who came out from another part of the wood, and, on ſeeing me, ſtood ſtill, as if afraid of diſturbing me. I ſtarted up in the greateſt confuſion; and, on recollecting the ſolitarineſs of the place, felt my ſurpriſe and agitation increaſed by my fear. I haſtily turned back towards the narrow path, which I had ſome difficulty in finding; and the ſteepneſs of the deſcent added ſo much to the tremor which had ſeized me, that I was almoſt afraid to venture acroſs the planks. I made the attempt however; but my head growing giddy before I reached the oppoſite ſide, my foot ſlipt, and I fell into the water. The firſt thing I recollect was waking as from a dream, and finding myſelf ſupported in the arms of a ſtranger, who gazed on me with an earneſtneſs that exceedingly diſconcerted me, and an aſtoniſhment at leaſt equal to my own. I trembled ſo violently, that I could not attempt riſing. He politely withdrew to a little diſtance, begged me to be compoſed, and entreated to know how he could be farther ſerviceable; expreſſed the moſt tender regret for the accident which he feared his intruſion had occaſioned; and with that anxious curioſity which politeneſs reſtrained, but could not conquer, hinted his ſurpriſe at finding a perſon of my appearance, at ſo early an hour, without any attendant, in a place ſo ſequeſtered.

'I did not affect concealment, but ſimply told him that I had left home earlier than uſual; and, invited by the ſerenity of the morning, and the beauty of that ſpot where he firſt ſaw me, had been induced to treſpaſs againſt good manners, perhaps, by a miſtake of my ſervant, who had aſſured me I was more than a mile from the grove.

"The ſervant is right, Madam," replied Mr. Rivers, (for it was Lord Cleveland's youngeſt ſon that now ſpoke to me): "This place is ſeldom viſited by any of the family, becauſe of its diſtance from the houſe;

houſe; but, for that very reaſon, is my favourite haunt when I incline to prefer my own thoughts to the converſation of others."

The favourable impreſſions made by this interview ſpeedily ripen into a mutual paſſion of great ſtrength, which might produce moſt agreeable conſequences, but the lover is ſuddenly ſent by his father to America, and a pathetic parting becomes neceſſary:

'We gave way to the violence of our emotions without reſtraint. Having indulged them till we were both aſhamed, I roſe; and, with all the fortitude and compoſure I could command, "Rivers!" ſaid I, "the ſureſt way to happineſs is to deſerve being happy. Go," continued I, "go and obey the dictates of honour and duty. Secure in my eſteem, my unalterable affection, let us hope that a time may yet arrive, when heaven will reward our preſent ſacrifice, and bleſs me with power to make you truly bleſt."

'He gazed on me for ſome moments with delight and aſtoniſhment; and, claſping me to his boſom, "Moſt noble, moſt angelic of women!" cried he, "may heaven no longer preſerve my life than whilſt it is ſuſtained by that dear delightful hope!"

'As the evening was far ſpent, we were forced to part. After mutual vows of inviolable fidelity, and mutual promiſes of conſtant correſpondence, Rivers taking a ſprig of laurel from a neighbouring tree, placed it on the ground, at the ſpot where you ſaw it growing. "Julia," ſaid he, "let this remind you of your abſent Rivers. Cheriſh it with care, my gentleſt love! it ſhall either crown him with honour, or be ſcattered on his grave."

'This ſolemn ſentence uttered, he fixed his eyes on me, with a look of unutterable tenderneſs; then claſping his hands, and raiſing them to heaven, "Powerful Protector of virtue and innocence!" cried he, "preſerve this thy choiceſt bleſſing from danger! Reſtore us to happineſs and each other, or let us meet no more!"

'Again he gazed on me with fond affection; again ſupplicated heaven to bleſs me; again preſſed me to his throbbing boſom; and at length, with a faultering voice, pronounced the laſt, lingering, cruel farewell!"

The lover continues two years in America, during which time he writes many letters, overflowing with tenderneſs, to his inamorata; but theſe, by the plots of malicious perſons, are never delivered. This pauſe cauſes a revolution in the lady's ſentiments, which is conſiderably aided by the appearance of another lover in the field, Sir Charles Mortimer by name. This gentleman ſhe deſcribes *con amore*:

'The ſtrangers ſeemed ſtruck with my appearance; and the melancholy ſilence with which Sir Charles in particular regarded me, increaſed my confuſion, by ſhewing me that my attempts to conceal my affliction had been unſucceſsful. To deliver myſelf from this painful reſtraint, and the burden of forcing converſation, I propoſed to accompany the gentlemen into the garden, from whence they could

could have a view of the river, pleasure-grounds, woods, &c. During our walk, my attention was roused by the manner and conversation of Sir Charles, which accorded perfectly with the singular gracefulness of his person, and a countenance impressed with a serious sweetness, that had something in it extremely interesting.

'A modest self-possession, an elegant address, and a superior manner of treating the most common subjects, convinced me that his understanding was excellent, and that he had been accustomed to associate with none but the very best company. Nor was our conversation wholly confined to general and indifferent topics; Sir Charles expatiated on the pleasures and advantages of a country life, and on the charms of domestic happiness, and social intercourse, in a manner so judicious and animated as proved him to have a heart capable of relishing their refined delights.'

Her favourable idea of Sir Charles is heightened by more intimate acquaintance, and by several benevolent offices, which he performs on her account. An accident at last proves that her heart is more deeply engaged than she had suspected:

'We took our leave; and, on our way home, Sir Charles sent his servant with an apology to Lord Cleveland, as he had promised my mother to return to dinner. No sooner was he gone, than we engaged in a very interesting conversation; and, the weather being extremely hot, walked our horses great part of the way. On coming to a cross-road, which was very rough, Sir Charles holding the reins too loose, his horse came down in a moment with such violence that he threw his master to a considerable distance.

'Sir Charles recovered himself; but, on looking about, I saw the blood trickling from his temples. I cannot express the horror I felt at that moment. I sprung from my horse, and flew to his assistance. He treated the accident as a trifle; took my hand, and, tenderly pressing it between his, assured me that he felt no pain but what arose from giving me uneasiness. Whilst he was speaking, I saw him change colour; he reeled back some paces, and grew so faint that he was forced to support himself against a tree, to prevent his falling to the ground. My apprehensions became so violent, and I trembled so much, I could hardly stand. Indeed, till that moment, I knew not how dear he was to me. I entreated him to sit down on the grass, chafed his temples with my handkerchief, and supported him in my arms. In a few minutes he recovered from the stupor occasioned by the fall, and, looking up to me with inexpressible sweetness, "O Julia!" said he, "Oh my angel! what would I give to owe to your love what I receive from your compassion." The affecting tone in which he uttered these words reminded me of my situation. My arm was still round him; I hastily withdrew it; and, covered with blushes, was about to retire to a greater distance. He seized my hand, and, pressing it to his bosom, "Unkind Julia!" cried he, will you then leave me in this situation? Oh! sickness, death were more supportable than this constant indifference."—"I am not indifferent, Sir Charles," replied I; "my fears at this moment witness for

for me."—" Ah, Julia!" exclaimed he with anguiſh, " you deceive yourſelf: you fear for my death, but you wiſh not for my life."—" Good heavens, Sir Charles," cried I with emotion, " ſurely you cannot think ſo! I wiſh your life—your happineſs—I anxiouſly wiſh to be able—to"—" O what, my Julia!" (gazing on me), " what do you anxiouſly wiſh?"—interrupted he eagerly. " I wiſh, Sir Charles, to—to,"—" To make me bleſſed—to be my wife," exclaimed he, tranſported. I did not retract what had juſt eſcaped me. This aſſent, though perhaps too raſhly given, was that of my heart, as well as of my duty, Maria. The danger to which I ſaw Sir Charles expoſed, awakened in my boſom emotions ſo tender, that I almoſt perſuade myſelf I have been unjuſt in ſo long accuſing myſelf of indifference to my kind and generous benefactor.'

Every thing now goes on in proper train; and, after decent deliberation, a marriage enſues. After which, and verily no ſooner, the conſtancy and fidelity of Rivers is, by his perſonal appearance, made manifeſt. The heroine is diſtracted, and lies, for a time, " on the ſtrong torture of the mind;" till a fever providentially carries off her peccant humours, and rectifies her erroneous ſentiments. Poor Rivers returns to America, and is killed.

Theſe are the *eſſential* incidents of this hiſtory. Our readers will quickly perceive what *novelty* they exhibit, and what claim the fair author has to the praiſe of *invention*. Yet barren as theſe volumes are of *plot* and *character*, they contain a great deal of what may be called *good-writing*, and ſtill more of good *preaching*. They are evidently ſuperior to Mrs. Kier's former production, " Intereſting Memoirs;" and give us room, if ſhe finds encouragement to proceed in this walk of literature, to expect an approach ſtill nearer to excellence. Her powers are reſpectable; but let her beware of underſtanding literally the ironical praiſes of her friends when they tell her that ſhe ranks with the firſt noveliſts of the age.

ART. VIII. *Sketch of Commotions and Diſorders in the Auſtrian Netherlands, including Tranſactions from the Firſt of April*, 1787; *in a Series of Epiſtles by Dennis O'Flaherty, Eſq. of the Kingdom and Province of Ireland. Emended into Engliſh by the Editor, and founded on official Papers.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. ſtitched. Johnſon. London, 1787.

THE Emperor of Germany, in his rage for religious and political reformation, has imitated the fanatical fervour of Jack in the " Tale of a Tub," rather than the calm

wiſdom of Martin. Changes, whether in government or religion, eſpecially the latter, ought always to be ſlow and gradual; reſpect is due to ancient opinions and cuſtoms, and even to prejudices that have been long eſtabliſhed; and wherever the privileges of the church, and in conſequence the power of the clergy, are threatened, ſo many real as well as unknown dangers are felt or feared that no wiſe monarch will make the attempt but with the utmoſt prudence and deliberation; for, as John Dryden happily expreſſes it,

> ‘ Of whatſoe'er deſcent the godhead be,
> Stock, ſtone, or other homely pedigree,
> In his defence his ſervants are as bold
> As if he had been born—of beaten gold.’

“ Great is Diana of the Epheſians” will be the cry of all the prieſts and ſilverſmiths who, *by that trade, have their gain.*

Accordingly we find that, though the Emperor of Germany can enforce his arguments with a hundred thouſand men (a more powerful mode of reaſoning than all the ſyllogiſms that have been hitherto invented), yet the church *militant* has aſſerted its ancient character, and a ſpirit of inſurrection and rebellion has prevailed in Bruges, Brabant, and other cities of the Auſtrian Netherlands. Unfortunately, however, the malecontents and inſurgents have diſcovered their ſpirit rather than their policy or their ſtrength: Accordingly their ill-concerted plan of reſiſtance will ſerve only in the end to ſtrengthen the authority of the imperial Joſeph. *Powder* may occaſion a very violent exploſion, but it is the *ball* that does execution.

The royal reformer and the orthodox rebels are equally made the objects of ridicule in this *jeu d'eſprit*, which poſſeſſes much comic humour, as the following quotation will evince:

> ‘ Great Ceſar was gone thro' the regions of Dwina
> To ſee a new town, and embrace Catherina.
> (Phyſicians all ſay that, to keep a man ſtout,
> No noſtrum is equal to running about;
> And, either for health or amuſement, 'tis clear,
> Great Ceſar keeps bouncing like new bottled beer,
> Whilſt riots and ſtatements are left *en arriere.*)
> Great Ceſar was gone, a third time 'tis rehears'd,
> And, if I apologize for't, I'll be c——'d.
> So, whether the critics approve it or not,
> My muſe, *quo ad hoc*, never values a jot,
> But forward ſhe goes in purſuit of a plot.

Great

Great Ceſar, once more, thro' the regions of Dwina
Was gone to ſhake hands with the great Catherina.
Hence thoſe took occaſion their feats to diſplay,
Who long had been wiſhing him out of the way.
'Twas now the great pillars of ſtate muſt be ſhaken
By all who had loſt, or who fear'd for their bacon.
Prieſts, lawyers, and ſtateſmen united amain,
('Twere pity no force could ſuch ardour reſtrain!)
And the bully mania o'erſpread ev'ry brain.'

'An army of heroes *ex*-order appear'd—
Their beavers they cock'd, and their canes they uprear'd
A propos of ſuch heroes—by fifties who ſpring
Up in days full of ſhow, ſuch as now I may ſing.
On grounds piping hot they like cucumbers ſhoot,
Cold, cold at the heart, and unſound at the root:
Awhile they look green, as on fungus they lie,
Till, nipt by a blaſt, they grow yellow and die.
All this of the patriot heroes?———oh, fie!
The bell of alarm they long threaten'd, but rung ill;
And clos'd the campaign, like the cock of a dunghill.'

'What wonder that thoſe ſhould be mad when they're bit,
Who reaſon exclude in whate'er they admit?
The clergy; the ſtateſmen took fire, and anon
Exclaim'd that "religion! religion was gone!"
Ev'n law (to religion not cloſely ally'd)
Join'd iſſue at once, and the ſov'reign defy'd.
All orders were ſeiz'd with ideal alarms,
Ev'n tailors roſe up with "to arms, *men*, to arms!"
Confus'd and perplex'd to all corners they run,
With reaſon, or not, on the ſide, 'twas all one,
Since the naked old beggars exclaim'd, "We're undone!"

The beginning of this poem is very happy, particularly the apoſtrophe to England, which is conceived in the true Britiſh as well as true poetical ſpirit.

The practice of Swift as well as Anſtey ſhew that the kind of verſe employed in this poem is a very proper vehicle of ridicule; though at the ſame time it is not adapted to a long work, on account of its monotony. Senſible of this, our author has attempted to give it variety by introducing odes, and diſſertations in proſe. Upon the whole, Dennis O'Flaherty is a genuine deſcendant of Momus, though no friend to the church; and we are much miſtaken if he, or ſome of his near relations, have not, on a former occaſion, given "An Advice to the Clergy."

ART. IX. *A View of the Englifh Intereſts in India; and an Account of the Military Operations in the ſouthern Parts of the Peninſula, during the Campaigns of* 1782, 1783, *and* 1784. *In Two Letters, addreſſed to the Right Hon. the Earl of* *********, *and to Lord Macartney and the Select Committee of Fort St. George. By William Fullarton, M. P. F. R. SS. of London and Edinburgh, and late Commander of the Southern Army on the Coaſt of Coromandel.* 8vo. 5s. boards. Cadell. London, 1787.

FROM a book entitled "A View of the Britiſh Intereſts in India," written by a gentleman of Colonel Fullarton's reputation, we expected ſome very material and uſeful information; but we are ſorry to ſay that we have been diſappointed.

In the work before us the invaſion and devaſtation of the Carnatic has been imputed to a long courſe of miſconduct in the ſervants of the Eaſt-India Company. In oppoſition to this authority we ſhall venture to ſtate what was, in our opinion, the real cauſe of that diſaſter. It may be traced to a moſt miſchievous and impolitic meaſure adopted by the king's miniſters in the year 1769.

When the nephew of the noble earl to whom Colonel Fullarton's firſt letter is addreſſed was ſent to Madras as miniſter plenipotentiary from his majeſty to the nabob of the Carnatic, the Company's government was in fact annihilated. It is abſurd to ſuppoſe, as Colonel Fullarton has done, that a few needy adventurers could perſuade the nabob to ſhake off his dependance upon the Eaſt-India Company, even if it were true that they had told him he was an independent ſovereign, and included in the peace of Paris; but when Sir John Lindſay was inſtructed to tell him ſo; when he took the part of the nabob, and reprobated, though with the politeneſs of a gentleman, the conduct of the governor and council towards him; when he loudly and publicly condemned, in the year 1770, the peace concluded the preceding year with Hyder Ally; when he flattered the nabob's prejudices againſt the Myſore uſurper, and did in fact recommend our junction with the Marattas, which would have been an infraction of the late treaty; when he ſupported the nabob's pretenſions to Tanjore, and when he taught the nabob to deſpiſe thoſe to whom he owed his dominion and his exiſtence; when Sir John Lindſay, in ſtrict conformity to his inſtructions, purſued ſo pernicious a ſyſtem, we affirm that he laid the ground-work of all thoſe calamities

calamities which have fince happened in the Carnatic, and did in effect bring our empire in India to the brink of ruin. To fuch of our readers as may doubt our ftatement, we earneftly recommend the perufal of the correfpondence between Sir John Lindfay and the governor and council of Madras in the years 1770 and 1771.

We differ as much from Colonel Fullarton in our ideas as to the immediate, as to the more diftant caufes of the invafion of the Carnatic.

We had in the month of March 1780, when Sir Thomas Rumbold left Madras, an army of twenty-feven thoufand men, each corps fully officered; and more than equal to the complete defence of the Carnatic againft Hyder's whole force. We affert with confidence, upon the beft information, that if twelve thoufand fepoys and fifteen hundred Europeans had been encamped between Arcot and the paffes leading to Myfore, between the months of May and July 1780, the Carnatic would not have been invaded at all. However difgufted Hyder may have been, he knew and had felt the Englifh power; he knew that the Marattas, with whom he had recently concluded a treaty, would be ready to attack him on the firft misfortune in the Carnatic. He knew that the Marattas would (as in fact they did) conclude a feparate peace with the Englifh, upon the principle avowed by Sir Robert Barker in his evidence to be the ruling principle of the princes of India, namely, to keep their faith no longer than it was their intereft to do fo.

Hyder was cautious; he even hefitated when on the borders of the Ghauts or Paffes leading to the Carnatic; but, encouraged by the total want of preparation on our part, he advanced. We affert, upon the information of an officer of high rank, and of reputation in the literary world, who was at Madras when the Carnatic was invaded, that the invafion is to be imputed to the total want of preparation to refift him in May 1780, after his intentions were fully known. Hyder was offended undoubtedly by our capture of Pondicherry and Mahi from his allies the French, and by our treaty with Bazalut Jung; he was not, however, induced to act from refentment of injuries, but from our mifconduct in the year 1780.

We agree with Colonel Fullarton that Hyder was a found ftatefman and an able financier; but we are of opinion that he had not the firft talents of a general; he knew not in what manner to avail himfelf of the favourable circumftances which fortune threw in his way.

He invaded the Carnatic with one hundred thouſand men, when our army was frittered away in detachments, and liable to be entirely deſtroyed in detail. He was completely ſucceſsful againſt Colonel Baillie. Had he followed his blow, three days had put a total end to the Britiſh dominion in the Carnatic. But he permitted Colonel Braithwaite, and Colonel Sir Henry Coſby to join Sir Hector Monro, and thus to lay the foundation of future, and ſucceſsful reſiſtance.

We ſhall now follow Colonel Fullarton in his remarks upon the ſtate of Bengal. He tells us that "Bengal has "advanced with rapid ſtrides to a decline during peace, "while Madras has ſuffered from the devaſtations of war." This account we read, we confeſs, with infinite ſurprize and aſtoniſhment, finding it differ ſo eſſentially from all others on which the ſlighteſt dependence can be placed. During the late debates in the Houſe of Commons, much has been ſaid of the flouriſhing ſtate of Bengal by Mr. Pitt, Mr. Dundas, Mr. Grenville, and indeed by every gentleman who has had acceſs to authentic documents. How often have we been told by impartial men of the improvement of the revenues of Bengal, the increaſe of its inhabitants, the ſecurity of private property, and the equal adminiſtration of juſtice, under the Britiſh government. Mr. Shore, whoſe merit alone has procured him a ſeat in the ſupreme council of Bengal, who is now at the head of the revenue ſyſtem under Lord Cornwallis, as he was for three years under Mr. Haſtings, ſpeaks of the natives of Bengal, and of our government, in the following words: "To our government "they have little attachment; yet it is certain, that in ge-"neral, property has been more ſecure, and individuals leſs "oppreſſed, than under the deſpotiſm of their nabobs. I "aſſert this with all the confidence which conviction in-"ſpires. I believe them to be as much attached to the "Engliſh government as they would be to any other; but "if another dominion could eſtabliſh itſelf, they would em-"brace it with indifference."

Sir John Macpherſon, the late governor-general of Bengal, writes to the court of directors on the 10th of Auguſt 1786 as follows: "The condition in which Earl Cornwallis "will receive the government of India is creditable to the "Company, and cannot but be ſatisfactory to the nation. "The native inhabitants of this kingdom are, I believe, "the happieſt and beſt protected ſubjects in India; our na-"tive allies and tributaries are ſatisfied, and confide in our "protection; the country powers are emuloufly aſpiring to "the friendſhip of the Engliſh; and from the king of

"Tidore,

" Tidore, towards New Guinea, to Timur Shaw on the " banks of the Indus, there is not a ſtate that has not lately " given us proofs of confidence and reſpect."—The letters of Lord Cornwallis, do, as we are informed, confirm in the fulleſt manner the repreſentations of Sir John Macpherſon.

Such are the authorities which we produce from the records of parliament in oppoſition to the aſſertions of Colonel Fullarton. We learn alſo, from other documents preſented to the Houſe of Commons by the directors of the Eaſt-India Company, that Bengal ſupplied Madras and Bombay with nearly ſeven millions ſterling in the courſe of the late war; and that the amount of the inveſtments ſent annually to England from Bengal, from 1772 to 1787, have been nearly a million ſterling each year, upon an average; and in the ſame periods the inveſtments of foreign nations trading to Bengal, have amounted to a very conſiderable ſum. It would be a waſte of argument to prove that the country which could afford ſuch prodigious drains muſt be an improving country; ſince in fact there is no period in the hiſtory of Indoſtan in which Bengal afforded ſuch aſſiſtance to that empire. Yet Colonel Fullarton, in the teeth of theſe facts, makes uſe of the following words: " But ſuch has " been the reſtleſs energy of our miſgovernment that, " within the ſhort ſpace of twenty years, many parts of " thoſe countries have been reduced to the appearance of a " deſert. The fields are no longer cultivated; extenſive " tracts are already overgrown with thickets; the huſband- " man is plundered, the manufacturer oppreſſed, famine has " been repeatedly endured, and depopulation has enſued."

We can aſſert, upon good information, that this extraordinary ſtatement is, in every reſpect, unfounded. Famine was once endured: by a failure of the periodical rains, in Auguſt and September 1769, Bengal and Bahar ſuffered all the calamities of famine in 1770; but it was before the Engliſh aſſumed the management of the revenues; no ſuch calamity has ever happened ſince that period; and the moſt effectual precautions have been taken to prevent the poſſibility of its happening hereafter.

Bengal never was ſo highly cultivated as at preſent; and it has been the peculiar good fortune of the Engliſh to bring into ſubjection countries whoſe hardy inhabitants withſtood every attempt made by the nabobs of Bengal to ſubdue them; we mean the natives of the long range of hills which form the weſtern and eaſtern boundaries of Bengal and Bahar. The inhabitants of theſe extenſive tracts were almoſt in a ſavage ſtate till the year 1774; they lived by ravaging the fertile plains at the foot of their mountains; but they are now

peaceable, induſtrious, and valuable ſubjects, and warmly attached to the Britiſh government. In the year 1781, a high road was cut through the weſtern range of hills, leading from Calcutta to Patna, heretofore impaſſable, except with a ſtrong eſcort, but at preſent the common route to the provinces of Bahar and Benares.

Speaking of the army in Bengal, Colonel Fullarton ſays "If we truſt to our military on the Bengal eſtabliſhment "for protection againſt theſe alarming enormities, we ſhall "find that entire corps have exiſted on paper, who, exclu- "ſive of the commander and ſtaff, never had any exiſtence "but upon paper; and it further appears, that thoſe ſepoys "who have a real exiſtence, are neither well diſciplined nor "regularly paid."

From what quarter could ſuch a ſtrange aſſertion proceed? Let it be our taſk coolly and deliberately to examine and refute it.

During the courſe of the late war a detachment of ſix battalions of ſepoys, 700 men in each, croſſed the continent of India, from Calpy to Guzzerat. After a very ſevere, and, in every action in which they were engaged, a ſucceſsful ſervice of ſix years, this detachment returned to Bengal, under the command of Colonel Charles Morgan, an officer now in London. It appears, from his public letters, that he marched back, upon an average, 380 men in each battalion, of the ſepoys who had left Bengal at the commencement of the ſervice.

In the courſe of the war Lieutenant-Colonel Popham commanded a detachment of native troops; took the ſtrong, and till then impregnable fortreſs of Gualior; and laid the groundwork of the Maratta peace.

The detachments commanded by Colonel Camac and Colonel Muir were diſtinguiſhed alſo for their gallantry, and diſcipline.

Five regiments of ſepoys marched to the Carnatic under the command of Colonel Pearſe, after Hyder's invaſion, and returned to Bengal in the year 1784. Theſe were young corps, having been raiſed after the commencement of the war; yet they were eminently diſtinguiſhed for their diſcipline, and their gallantry. One of theſe regiments had the honour of regaining a poſt from an old French regiment at Cuddalore, which a king's regiment had loſt. Lord Macartney, Sir Eyre Coote, and General Stuart, who diſagreed in moſt points, had no difference of opinion with reſpect to the Bengal troops, but, on the contrary, beſtowed the warmeſt eulogiums upon them. Equally well diſciplined were the regiments ſtationed in our own provinces, and in Oude. They

They had a country to cover and to defend twelve hundred miles in length, and from four to five hundred miles in breadth; and they fully protected and defended it. We had not in Bengal, during the whole war, eighteen hundred Europeans fit for duty; nor could the directors ſupply recruits, notwithſtanding the preſſing remonſtrances of the governor-general and council. We aſſert, therefore, that the internal tranquillity of Bengal, &c. was preſerved by the attention of government, and by the ſtrict diſcipline obſerved by the officers who commanded the native regiments.

The late commander in chief in Bengal, ſome of the colonels who commanded brigades, and many of the officers who commanded native regiments during the war, are now in England; and we believe they will all unite in declaring that Colonel Fullarton's account of the Bengal army is utterly unfounded.

But we confeſs that we were very much ſtruck by a note at the cloſe of the account of Bengal. It is too curious to be omitted: "The preceding remarks," ſays the colonel, "on the condition of Bengal, and its adjacent territories, "*are not the reſult of perſonal obſervation*; and therefore may "be conſidered as leſs deſerving of attention than thoſe "which I have offered on the affairs of Coromandel."

There are two points mentioned by Colonel Fullarton in which we entirely agree with him, though he has offered them to the world at a time when the world needs them not. The legiſlature has wiſely increaſed the power of the governor-general; and the court of directors have made each governor, commander in chief alſo.

The court of directors have further ſeen the neceſſity of keeping the ſeveral corps compoſing their army, both in Bengal, and upon the coaſt, fit for ſervice at a moment's notice. Every enlightened man who has ſerved in Indoſtan has for many years agreed upon theſe two points.

We are inclined to believe that, if a peace had not been concluded with Tippoo in March 1784, Colonel Fullarton would have effected a revolution in Myſore. He commanded the fineſt army that ever took the field in Indoſtan; and he was ably ſupported.

His letters to Lord Macartney and the ſelect committee are the beſt parts of his book.

ART.

ART. X. *The Engliſh Orator. Books the Second and Third. By the Rev. Richard Polwhele, Tranſlator of Theocritus, &c.* 4to. 5s. ſtitched. Cadell. London, 1787.

WE gave an account of the firſt book of Mr. Polwhele's Engliſh Orator in our Review for July 1785. The ſecond book turns on the eloquence of the bar, in which Mr. Polwhele propoſes to the conſideration of ſtudents in forenſic oratory the ſource, ends, and object of argument, which is the eſſential of the oration; and the circumſtances attending the bar, which is the ſcene of action. The ſource of argument he makes twofold, internal and external, or, reaſon and authority. The Engliſh law is included within the latter, to which the ſtudent ought in general to confine himſelf. The ancient orators drew their arguments chiefly from the internal ſource, and conſequently had a wider field for declamation and eloquence; but the ſucceſs of the Engliſh pleader depends on his knowledge of the laws. On ſubjects ſo remote from Parnaſſus, and ſo uncongenial to the muſes, as the ſtatute-book and acts of parliament, the reader is not to expect the moſt pleaſing vein of poetry, or the fineſt flowers of eloquence; yet our author frequently illuminates the darkneſs, and animates the ſterility of his ſubject by lively deſcriptions, elegant tranſitions, and a very large portion of panegyric on lawyers who have riſen to eminence. Having concluded his precepts on the ſubject of forenſic eloquence, he takes a view of the trials and executions in other countries, and deſcribes the Baſtile in France, the Portugueze inquiſition, and the arbitrary tribunals of Turky and Venice. The ſtory of Foſcari from Dr. Moore's Travels is related with pathos, though too diffuſe.

In the third book our author treats on the eloquence of the ſenate; a ſubject more ſuited to the graces of poetry and eloquence than the former. The following portraits of the late Lord Chatham and of Mr. Burke, give no unfavourable idea of our author's manner:

——— ——— 'But we haſte
To catch the features of a Brunſwick's reign,
Where, from a galaxy of ſpeakers bright
With indiſcriminated beams, broke forth
A Chatham's ſplendor! Fait the mingled rays
Of the ſurrounding orators grew pale—
Fainting into the ſkies! Ev'n Wyndham's ſtar
Was dim; and Pulteney had no luſtre there.
And, lo! the flaming ſon of genius, bold

In native independence, and impell'd
By ſtrong ambition, ſeizes at a graſp
The comprehenſive ſubject, that appears
Infinitude to vulgar views! His mind
Original and vaſt, his nervous ſtrain
Unlabour'd and irregular, his voice
Commanding, his eye cloth'd with lightnings, ſtern
His aſpect and terrific, as the frown
Of heav'n—ſublimity his every nod
Attended, proud of her miniſtrant powers!
'Twas thus Themiſtocles the Athenian tribes
Struck with amazement, as his eagle mind
Intuitive diſdain'd the ſofter arts
Of rhetoric, truſting to its ſtrength alone!
But Chatham, though not verſatile as great,
Could ev'n effuſe th' inſinuating tones
Of ſweetneſs, with ſo exquiſite a grace,
That his enchanted auditory hung
Upon his breath repoſing, as the wave
In placid ſtillneſs reſts upon the ſhore!
'Yet was he not accompliſh'd. Nature gave
With prodigality a mental boon
Which every eye aſtoniſh'd. Yet was art—
Yet claſſic art was wanting there to ſmooth
Th' aſperities of language; to reſtrain
A copiouſneſs o'erflowing the juſt bounds
Of order, and give method to the whole—
One dazzling emanation? Rude, verboſe,
With incorrectneſſes of ſtyle, and words
Inaccurately plac'd, no ſkill he own'd
To treat the dry unanimated theme;
Nor, in the cooler moment, gain th' aſſent
Of critic judgment to his harſh eſſays.
'But, in his orb our verſe unwilling points
Theſe little ſpots, that almoſt diſappear
Amidſt the fadeleſs glory. Turn we next
To living politicians; where ſtands forth
Conſpicuous in the variegated group,
Of rhetoric no mean maſter—more obſerv'd,
As with a Chatham's traits contraſted riſe
His ſtrongly-ſhaded lineaments. Profuſe
Of florid declamation, he hath taſte
That, with a reliſh inexpreſſive, feels
The finer beauties of the Grecian page—
Say, who like Burke can feel them? All the train
Of claſſic imag'ry his mind evolves,
And quick into a new creation moulds,
The race of fairy fancy!—But too fond
Of erudite alluſions—too propenſe
To draw from ancient poeſy the tropes
The figures of his ſpeech, to truth he gives

A falling

A fabling air, and buries common sense
Beneath an heap of metaphor. His thoughts
Are methodis'd by Aristotle's rules;
And (if no rival's irritating sneer
Derange his plan) in regular array
The series of the harangue proceeds—yet stiff
Thro' regularity; and not enough
Savouring of the colloquial—an harangue
That might beseem th' academy or school;
Like some inaugural oration, rich
In classic vein, beneath a pedant's eye.'

In the character of Lord Chatham there is an indistinctness of idea, and sometimes a bombast of expression; but the portrait of Mr. Burke, though not a flattering likeness, is well drawn. Upon the whole, the reader will meet with instruction and much entertainment in this spirited poem. The versification is sometimes obscure and sometimes affected; and the profusion of panegyric, or rather adulation, which runs through it, will disgust every reader who possesses the spirit of an Englishman. There is often a magnanimity in the effusions of misanthropy and the pictures of satire; but gross and senseless panegyric on living examples of mediocrity or meanness, is below the dignity of a man of genius, or a man of virtue. We do not apply this to our author, but it is too much the character of the times.

ART. XI. *The Office, Powers, and Jurisdiction of his Majesty's Justices of the Peace and Commissioners of Supply. In Four Books. By Robert Boyd, LL.D. In Two large Volumes Quarto.* 1l. 11s. 6d. Murray, London; Balfour, Edinburgh.

THE work before us is the first which has been presented to the public upon the subject of the jurisdiction of justices of peace in Scotland; the first, at least, which has developed their jurisdiction in all its parts, explained its origin, nature, and extent, and placed their powers in the same clear light in which the labours of Lambard, Dalton, and, above all others, the late Dr. Burn, have placed them in England. While Scotland, however, is more interested in the information communicated by this work, it is not to Scotland alone that its benefits are confined. By giving a view of the jurisdiction of the justices in both kingdoms, whether it be the same or different, the legal authority of these magistrates is exhibited to the public in a system of which the several parts

parts mutually reflect light upon each other. Hence this work becomes, to the native of England, an useful supplement to the work of Dr. Burn. While it affords a clear detail and an ample exhibition of the law and practice of Scotland, it pourtrays the corresponding aspect of the law of England. And to both it thus becomes a repository of legal and interesting knowledge; supplying deficiencies, or unfolding what had formerly been allowed to remain unknown.

This is not the only circumstance in Dr. Boyd's work which entitles it to public patronage. Having adopted a new method of arrangement, he has been enabled to give scope to such moral and political reflections as arose from the particular subjects of which he happened to treat. These observations he has at the same time contrived to blend so happily with the principal subjects, that, while full of information, they do not appear to be digressions, but such essential parts of the argument that, without them, the work would seem to be lame and imperfect. "The author wished "to unite two things, which, upon the common plan, were "not only separated, but could not be other than inseparable. He wished to unite the advantages of continuity "of perusal with the advantage of consulting occasionally. "The *first* he has endeavoured to effect by throwing his "work, as far as he could, into a system; the *second*, by "subjoining a copious index, designed to serve the same "purpose as an alphabetical arrangement of the several "subjects; and he hopes that, by these means, he has "avoided the uncouth appearance of a mere dictionary, "while he has, at the same time, preserved all its utility. "Occasional consultation will be equally easy; and the continued perusal of the work will not be obstructed by "those breaks and interruptions which impede the march "of the reader, and which nothing but the effervescence of "a zeal for knowledge can surmount."

Dr. Boyd has likewise apologized for introducing such remarks as we have mentioned into his work: "We take a "flight, it may be said, beyond the boundaries of our subject, by thus blending political and moral inquiries with "the nomenclature of statutes, the arrangement of cases, "and the collecting of legal opinions. And the objection "would be just, were the common method of writing upon "law subjects to be esteemed the only proper one, merely "because it is the common method. But Stair in our own "country, and Blackstone among the English, are illustrious "examples of combining legal with philosophical disquisi-

"tions.

" tions. It is, indeed, to degrade the dignity of law to sup-
" pose it confined to so narrow a circle; *unde pudor proferre*
" *pedem vetat aut operis lex.* Thus cramped and manacled,
" it is no longer that liberal study which bestows additional
" energy upon every faculty of the soul, which rouses its
" dormant capacities, gives new keenness to its views,
" quickens its perceptions, discovers the principles of legis-
" lation, teaches how to provide against, or how to remedy,
" disorders in the state, and enables men, as was said of the
" Americans, ' to augur misgovernment at a distance, and
" snuff the approach of tyranny in every tainted breeze."

The work is divided into four books. The *first* is employed in enumerating and explaining the various *subjects* concerning which justices of the peace have jurisdiction by their commission, or by statute: the *second* gives an account of the *nature* and extent of this jurisdiction: the *third* regards the powers conferred upon justices of peace and *commissioners of supply*, whether exercised jointly or separately: and the *fourth* book concludes with an account of the jurisdiction conferred upon justices of peace in Scotland, from the period of the Union, with regard to matters of *excise* and *customs*.

That portion of Dr. Boyd's work which is employed in explaining the powers of the *commissioners of supply* in Scotland is very interesting, and full of information. The commissioners of supply in Scotland are similar, in many respects, to the English commissioners of the land-tax; but they possess, at the same time, much more extensive powers. The assessment or valuation made in Scotland, by the act of convention in 1667, is analagous to the valuation of 1692 in England; and from these periods the land-tax, in both parts of the kingdom, has continued to be levied according to these respective valuations. Commissioners of supply thus originated as a stable and permanent body with this act of convention. But the levying of supplies came to be among the least of their powers: the law of Scotland having fixed a *forty shillings* land of *old extent*, or 400l. Scots of *valued rent*, as the qualification entitling to vote for, or be elected, a member of parliament; and the cognizance of such qualifications being committed, in the first instance, to the commissioners of supply, their office has become of great importance; and an explanation of it includes the parliamentary law and history of Scotland. Without entering at too great length into the general view of the subject, but stating at the same time those necessary circumstances which the subject demanded, our author has related the various

various enactments of statutes regarding the powers of the commissioners in these important respects, the several adjudications of the supreme court in Scotland, and of the House of Lords, upon the nature and extent of these powers; and accompanied the whole with observations upon the points adjudged, and which are explanatory of the statutory enactments. The origin and progress of taxation in both parts of the kingdom; the nature of what is called the *old* and *new extent*; and, above all, those votes so famous under the appellation of *nominal* and *fictitious*, and which have lately excited so much attention through Great-Britain, rouse his attention, and exercise his industry. The reader will accordingly find a more complete account of these subjects in Dr. Boyd's work than has hitherto been in the possession of the public. Independently, therefore, of this work, exhibiting a complete view, in conjunction with that of Dr. Burn, of the jurisdiction exercised by justices of peace in both parts of Britain, it stands forward in another favourable point of light, as it explains a subject equally important and new.

It is no small recommendation of the work that, though published some weeks before, yet the reasoning with regard to what are called nominal and fictitious votes, the explanation of their nature, and of what qualities are essential to their constitution, correspond exactly with the doctrines delivered by the present lord-chancellor in his celebrated speech upon this subject, on the 30th of April last. The only difference is, that our author, whether right or wrong, is of opinion that no other mode of expiscation remains after the *trust oath* has been put to the claimant.

To the English reader it may appear strange that disquisitions of this nature are introduced into a work upon the powers of justices of peace. But a perusal of the work will inform him that the commissioners above spoken of are enjoined by statute with the justices in the superintendence of several objects of a public nature; and as it was necessary for the author to give an account of this part of their jurisdiction, it became a natural object to give an account likewise of the jurisdiction exercised by them in other matters.

We wished to have given some extracts from this portion of our author's work; but the parts are so connected with each other, that to detach them would destroy their order and beauty, while the separate members could not be appretiated without an assemblage of more quotations than our bounds will admit of.

As a specimen of Dr. Boyd's manner and habits of thinking, we shall submit the following passage to the consideration of

of our readers. He is speaking of the inconveniencies to which Scotland is subjected from the authority which the Court of Session and the House of Lords possess of declaring what acts of parliament extend or do not extend to that part of the kingdom; a grievance which doubtless calls loudly for redress:

'To separate the legislative from the judicial authority is the grand requisite in the constitution of a free state. Yet, since the period of the Union, the character and power of judge and lawgiver have, in many instances, and from no real, though from an accidental necessity, been, in this part of the kingdom, united in the same persons; while it depends upon the Court of Session in the first instance, or upon the House of Lords in the last resort, to determine what acts of the British parliament, which are not themselves expressly indicative of their extent, are to be held as reaching to Scotland. To declare whether a law extends or does not extend, is neither more nor less than to legislate for the whole kingdom; it is to create the law by creating its objects; or to repeal the law by declaring that it has no objects upon whom it may operate. Of the Court of Session, in ancient times, it was said by Buchanan, "omnium civium bona quindecim hominum arbitrio sunt commissa, quibus et perpetua potestas, et imperium plane tyrannicum, quippe quorum arbitria sola sunt pro legibus." Rer. Scot. lib. xiv. c. 42. Whether peevishness or truth guided Buchanan's pen in this observation, it is unnecessary to inquire; but the application of it in the present subject is just and obvious: not that our supreme court has arrogated to itself any powers, in this case, which it was not absolutely necessary to exercise. This palpable imperfection is to be traced to another source. The framers of the statutes themselves are the cause of the evil, who do not precisely mark when a statute is intended to comprehend the whole kingdom, and when to embrace only a part of it. But is not this susceptible of an easy remedy? May it not be mentioned expressly in every British statute whether it be confined to England, or is meant to comprehend Scotland also? Or may it not be generally enacted, that every statute whatever shall be understood to extend to Scotland, unless it be specially provided to the contrary, or unless its enactments be inconsistent with the articles of the treaty of Union? We should then be no longer disgraced by that solecism in government which confounds the legislative with the judicial authority. The Court of Session would be relieved from a most irksome and invidious burden, and the people would be freed from any cause of alarm.

'It is indeed to be confessed that no pernicious consequences of a public nature have hitherto resulted from the exercise of this anomalous power. Circumstances of the strongest counteraction, arising from the general frame of our constitution, have prevented these; and they have been prevented by the modest and chastised use which the Court of Session has made of this hitherto necessary authority. But it is not merely in its actual effects that this power is to be reprobated; it is in its nature and probable consequences; "Parce qu'on peut craindre," to use the words of Montesquieu, "qui le même monarque ou le même

même venat ne faſſe des loix tyranniques pour les executer tyranniquement." And the buſineſs of tyranny may be done to the full as well by refuſing the extenſion of a favourable law, or declaring the extenſion of a law unfavourable to liberty, as by creating at the firſt hand, or annulling either the one or the other. With reſpect to thoſe Britiſh ſtatutes whoſe enactments relate to crimes, the grievance is ſtill more intolerable; for it is now held to be law, that, from the Court of Juſticiary, there is no appeal.'

It is neceſſary to remark that ſome ſubjects are treated in this work not only with relation to the ſubſiſting laws concerning them, but with regard to the improvements of which they are ſuſceptible, or the alterations which they ſeem to require; ſuch, in particular, are the chapters on the *poor laws* and upon *irregular marriages*. Of theſe the *firſt* has long excited, and continues at this moment more than ever to excite, the attention of the people of England: the *ſecond* has excited, and *deſerves* ſtill to excite, their attention more forcibly. The ſtatute of the 26th Geo. II. commonly called the *marriage-act*, has never perhaps, in all its diſcuſſions in the ſenate, received a more diſpaſſionate or able elucidation than is exhibited in the work under review.

On the whole, this work may be conſidered not only as a performance intereſting to juſtices of the peace, but as an uſeful acquiſition to Britiſh juriſprudence.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. XII. *Voyage en Syrie et Egypte, pendant les Années* 1783, 1784, *et* 1785, *avec deux Cartes Geographiques, repreſentant les Ruines de Temple du Soleil à Balbek, et celles de la Ville de Palmire dans le Deſert. Par M. Volney.*

ART. XII. *Travels through Syria and Egypt, during the Years* 1783, 1784, *and* 1785, *with two Geographical Charts and two engraved Plates, repreſenting the Ruins of the Temple of the Sun at Balbek, and thoſe of Palmira in the Deſert of Syria. In Two Volumes. By M. C— F. Volney.* 8vo. 2 tom. Paris, 1787.

[*Concluded from our Review of September.*]

HAVING refuted the opinion which M. Savary had raſhly adopted concerning the extenſion and elevation of the Delta, M. Volney proceeds to give an account of the

climate and air of Egypt, and the phenomena of the winds. From the extreme heats in Egypt, and its wet and marſhy condition for three months, the firſt idea of travellers is that it muſt be an unhealthy country; but experience proves the fallacy of this theory; the vapours which riſe from the ſtagnant waters, ſo fatal in Cyprus and Alexandretta, have not the ſame effect in Egypt. This M. Volney imputes to the natural dryneſs of the air; to the proximity of Africa and Arabia, which inceſſantly draw off the humidity, and the perpetual currents of wind which meet with no obſtacle. This aridity is ſuch that fleſh meat expoſed in ſummer, to the north wind, does not putrify, but dries up and becomes hard as wood. In the deſerts dead carcaſes are found dried in this manner, which are ſo light that a man may eaſily lift with one hand the entire body of a camel.

The air, beſides poſſeſſing this drying quality, appears to be ſtrongly impregnated with ſalts. The ſtones are corroded by natrum, and, in moiſt places, long cryſtalliſations are to be found, which might be taken for ſaltpetre. It is doubtleſs this property of the air and the earth, which, added to the heat, gives vegetation an activity unknown in other climates. In the vicinity of Cairo and Roſetta the ſpecies of gourd called kara in twenty-four hours ſends up ſhoots near four inches long. Foreign plants, however, degenerate rapidly in every part of Egypt.

In the ſixth chapter M. Volney deſcribes the various inhabitants of Egypt, the peaſant Arabs, the Bedouin Arabs, the Copts, Turks, and Mamlouks. Of the latter, who for ſo many ages have held Egypt in ſubjection, our author delivers a particular account. This claſs of ſoldiers, who are born at the foot of Mount Caucaſus, are diſtinguiſhed from the other inhabitants by the flaxen colour of their hair, which is entirely different from that of the natives of Egypt. The Mamlouks were introduced into Egypt in the year 1227. The Tartars, who had made a conqueſt of Perſia, brought with them into Egypt a prodigious quantity of young ſlaves. The ſucceſſors of Saladin perceived that they had now an opportunity of forming, at a cheap rate, a body of ſoldiers of tried courage and remarkable beauty; and, about the year 1230, one of them purchaſed to the number of twelve thouſand of theſe youths, who were Circaſſians, Mingrelians, and Abazans. He had them trained up to military exerciſes, and ſoon obtained a body of the beſt ſoldiers in Aſia, though at the ſame time the moſt mutinous. This ſoldiery, like the Pretorian bands, ſoon gave laws to their maſter.

Their

Their continuation in this country for ſo many centuries is not a leſs ſingular event than their firſt eſtabliſhment. During five hundred and fifty years that the Mamlouks have exiſted in Egypt none of them have left a line of deſcendants; all their children periſh in the firſt or ſecond deſcent. The ſame ſterility is incident to the Turks, who can only ſecure the continuance of their families by marrying women who are natives, which the Mamlouks have always diſdained. It appears a kind of phenomenon in natural hiſtory that a healthy race born at Mount Caucaſus ſhould be unable to naturalize on the banks of the Nile. But let it be remembered at the ſame time, that the vegetables of Europe tranſplanted to that country are equally unable to continue their ſpecies. Hippocrates aſſerts that, among the Scythians and Egyptians, all the individuals reſemble each other, though they are like no other nations; and adds that, in the countries inhabited by theſe two races of men, the climate, ſeaſons, elements, and ſoil, poſſeſs an uniformity no where elſe to be found. When countries impreſs ſuch a peculiar character on every thing native, the moſt probable means of naturalizing animals would be to contract an affinity with the climate by alliance with the native ſpecies; and this the Mamlouks have conſtantly refuſed. The means, therefore, by which they are perpetuated and multiplied are the ſame by which they were firſt eſtabliſhed; that is, when they die they are replaced by ſlaves brought from their original country.

After having conſidered the commerce carried on at Cairo with Arabia and India, by the way of Suez, M. Volney proceeds to inquire, Whether it would be practicable to cut through the iſthmus which ſeparates the Red Sea from the Mediterranean, that veſſels might arrive at India by a ſhorter route than by the Cape of Good Hope. The ſpace which ſeparates the two ſeas is not more than eighteen or nineteen leagues. This interval is not interſected by mountains; there is not therefore any difference of levels to prevent the junction; but the great difficulty ariſes from the nature of the correſponding coaſts of the Mediterranean and the Red Sea, which are of a low and ſandy ſoil, in which the waters form lakes, ſhoals, and moraſſes, ſo that veſſels cannot approach within a conſiderable diſtance. It will therefore be found ſcarcely poſſible to dig a permanent canal amidſt theſe ſhifting ſands; not to mention that the ſhore is deſtitute of harbours, which muſt be entirely the work of art. The country beſides has not a drop of freſh water to ſupply the inhabitants. Our author is therefore of opinion that the

beſt method of effecting this junction is that which has been formerly practiſed at different times, which is, by making the river itſelf the medium of communication, for which the ground is well calculated; for Mount Mokkattam ſuddenly terminating in the latitude of Cairo, forms only a low and ſemicircular mound, round which is a continued plain from the banks of the Nile, as far as the point of the Red Sea. This idea of joining the two ſeas by a canal connected with the river was adopted by the ancients, and, as we are informed by Strabo, executed under Seſoſtris. After the Greeks conquered the country, it was reſtored by the Ptolemies, and again renewed by Trajan.

In the eighteenth chapter M. Volney reſumes his deſcriptive ſketch of Egypt, and draws that celebrated country in leſs flattering, but juſter colours than thoſe with which it has been delineated by former travellers. After having remarked the influence of prejudices and early habits in forming the taſte of different nations for landſcapes of a very different kind, he thus proceeds:

'Every man has his taſtes, according to which he judges. To an Egytian I conceive that Egypt is, and always will be, the moſt beautiful country upon earth, though he has never beheld any other. But if I may be permitted to give my judgment, from what I have myſelf ſeen, I confeſs that I cannot entertain ſo high an opinion of it. I am willing to do juſtice to its extreme fertility, to the variety of its productions, and the advantages of its ſituation for commerce; I admit that Egypt is but little ſubject to the variations of weather which occaſion the failure of harveſts with us; that the hurricanes of America are unknown there; that the earthquakes which have laid waſte Portugal and Italy in our days, are there extremely rare, though not without example. I admit even that the heat, which is ſo inſupportable to Europeans, is no inconvenience to the natives; but the deſtructive ſouthern winds are certainly a very real evil: the wind from the north-eaſt too is no ſmall inconvenience, as it is the forerunner of violent head-achs; and another objection to be made is, that multitude of ſcorpions, gnats, and eſpecially flies, which are ſo numerous that it is impoſſible to eat without running the riſk of ſwallowing them. Beſides, no country preſents ſuch a ſameneſs of aſpect. A boundleſs naked plain; an horizon every where flat and uniform; date-trees with their ſlender trunks, or mud-walled huts on the cauſeways, are all it offers to the eye, which no where beholds that richneſs of landſcape, that variety of objects, or diverſity of ſcenery, which true taſte finds ſo delightful. No country is leſs picturesque, leſs adapted to the pencil of the painter, or the deſcriptions of the poet: nothing can be ſeen of what conſtitutes the charm and beauty of their pictures; and it is remarkable that neither the Arabs nor the ancients make any mention of Egyptian poets. What indeed could an Egyptian ſing on the reed of Geſner or Theocritus? He ſees neither limpid ſtreams, nor verdant

verdant lawns, nor ſolitary caves; and is equally a ſtranger to vallies, mountain ſides, and pendent rocks.

'Thompſon could not there have known either the whiſtling of the winds in the foreſt, the rolling of thunder among the mountains, or the peaceful majeſty of ancient woods; he could not have obſerved the awful tempeſt, nor the ſweet tranquillity of the ſucceeding calm. The face of nature, there eternally the ſame, preſents nothing but well-fed herds, fertile fields, a muddy river, a ſea of freſh water, and villages which, riſing out of it, reſemble iſlands. Should the eye reach the horizon, we are terrified at finding nothing but ſavage deſerts, where the wandering traveller, exhauſted with fatigue and thirſt, ſhudders at the immenſe ſpace which ſeparates him from the world. In vain he implores heaven and earth; his cries, loſt in the boundleſs plain, are returned to him only by feeble echoes; deſtitute of every thing, and ſeparated from mankind, he periſhes in an agony of deſpair, amid a gloomy deſert, without even the conſolation of knowing he has excited the ſympathiſing tear. The contraſt of this melancholy ſcene, ſo near, has probably given to the cultivated fields of Egypt all their charms. The barrenneſs of the deſert becomes a foil to the plenty of the plains, watered by the river; and the aſpect of the parched ſands, ſo totally unproductive, adds to the pleaſures the country offers. Theſe may have been numerous in former times, and might revive under the influence of a good government; but at preſent the riches of nature produce not the fruits which might be expected. In vain do travellers celebrate the gardens of Roſetta and of Cairo. The Turks are ſtrangers to the art of gardening, ſo much cultivated by poliſhed nations, and deſpiſe every kind of cultivation. Throughout the empire their gardens are only wild orchards, in which trees are planted without care or art, yet have not even the merit of irregularity. In vain may they tell us of the orange trees and cedars, which grow naturally in the fields. Accuſtomed as we are to combine the ideas of opulence and culture with theſe trees, ſince with us they are neceſſarily connected with them, we do not diſcover the deception. In Egypt, where they are frequent, and as I may ſay vulgar, they are aſſociated with the miſery of the huts they cover, and recall only the idea of poverty and deſolation. In vain do they deſcribe the Turk ſoftly repoſing under their ſhade, and happy in ſmoking his pipe without reflection. Ignorance and folly, no doubt, have their enjoyments, as well as wit and learning; but, for my own part, I confeſs I could never bring myſelf to envy the repoſe of ſlaves, or to dignify inſenſibility with the name of happineſs. I ſhould not have been able to conceive from whence could proceed the enthuſiaſm with which ſome travellers have extolled Egypt, had not experience revealed to me the ſecret motives.'

Syria next engages the attention of M. Volney; a country little viſited by travellers, but whoſe ancient and modern ſtate is highly intereſting to curioſity. Agreeable to the plan which he had adopted with regard to Egypt, our philoſophical traveller firſt gives an account of the geography

and natural hiſtory of Syria. In this elegant and accurate part of the work, he deſcribes the general appearance of the country, the mountains and their ſtructure, the volcanos and earthquakes, the locuſts, the rivers and lakes, the climate, the qualities of the air, the qualities of the waters; and then makes obſervations on the winds, clouds, rains, fogs, and thunder. The hiſtorian as well as the philoſopher is intereſted in theſe details, as the character of a people frequently ariſes from the phyſical phenomena of the country which they inhabit. He next deſcribes the different inhabitants of Syria. Within two thouſand five hundred years ten invaſions have introduced into this country a ſucceſſion of foreign nations. The Aſſyrians of Nineveh, the Chaldeans of Babylon, the Perſians under Cyrus, the Macedonians under Alexander, and the Romans under Pompey, became ſucceſſively maſters of Syria. When the ſons of Theodoſius divided their immenſe property, it was annexed to the empire of Conſtantinople, and remained ſubject to the Greek emperors till the year 622, when it was laid waſte by the Arabs under the banners of Mahomet. Since that period, torn to pieces by the civil wars of the Fatmites and the Ommiades; wreſted from the caliphs by their rebellious governors; taken from them by their Turkmen ſoldiery; invaded by the European cruſaders; retaken by the Mamlouks of Egypt; and ravaged by Tamerlane and his Tartars; it has at length fallen into the hands of the Ottoman Turks, who have continued maſters of it for two hundred and ſixty-eight years. Theſe viciſſitudes have introduced into the country diſtinct tribes of inhabitants, as various as the revolutions it has undergone; ſo that the Syrians are a mixture of different nations. They may be divided into three principal claſſes; the deſcendants of the Greeks of the lower empire, who were conquered by the Arabs; the deſcendants of the Arabian conquerors; and the preſent ruling people, the Ottoman Turks. In this enumeration the ancient inhabitants have no remaining repreſentative; the Greeks, by a continued reſidence ſince the days of Alexander, ſupply the place of the natives; the remote villages, and a few traits of manners and cuſtoms, preſerve the only memorial of diſtant ages.

The inhabitants of Syria are divided into two remarkable claſſes, the paſtoral and wandering tribes, and thoſe which are fixed and ſtationary. In the former deſcription are the Turkmen, the Cards, and the Bedouin Arabs. The Turkmen are a diviſion of the Tartar hordes, who, on the great revolutions that took place in the empire of the caliphs, emigrated

emigrated from the eaſtward of the Caſpian Sea, and ſpread themſelves over the vaſt plains of Armenia and Aſia Minor. Like the Bedouin Arabs, they are paſtors, and travel over immenſe tracts of land to procure ſubſiſtence to their numerous herds. The original ſeat of the Curds is the chain of mountains whence iſſue the different branches of the Tigris, which, ſurrounding the upper part of the great Zab, paſſes to the ſouthward as far as the frontiers of the Perſian Irak. It is now known by the name of Curdeſtan. This country is celebrated in the moſt ancient traditions and hiſtories of the Eaſt. Its inhabitants, who oppoſed the retreat of the ten thouſand, are mentioned by Xenophon under the name of Carduchi. This hiſtorian obſerves that, though incloſed on all ſides by the Perſian empire, they had conſtantly braved the power of the *great king*, and the arms of his ſatraps. Their ancient ſpirit ſtill remains; and though in appearance tributaries to the Porte, they pay little reſpect to the orders of the Grand Signior or of his pachas.

The Bedouin Arabs have been often deſcribed. Our author, like a philoſopher, endeavours to aſſign the cauſes of that wandering and predatory life which they have led in every age:

'The wandering and paſtoral life led by ſeveral Aſiatic nations, ariſes from two cauſes. The firſt is, the nature of the ſoil, which, being improper for cultivation, compels men to have recourſe to animals, which content themſelves with the wild herbage of the earth. Where this herbage is but thin, a ſingle animal will ſoon conſume the produce of a great extent of ground; and it will be neceſſary to run over large tracts of land. Such is the caſe of the Arabs in the deſerts of Arabia, properly ſo called, and in that of Africa.

'The ſecond cauſe muſt be attributed to habit, ſince the ſoil is cultivable, and even fertile, in many places; ſuch as the frontiers of Syria, the Diarbekir, Natolia, and the greateſt parts of the diſtricts frequented by the Curds and Turkmen. But it appears to me that theſe habits are only the effect of the political ſtate of the country; ſo that the primary cauſe of them muſt be referred to the government itſelf. This opinion is ſupported by daily facts; for, as often as the different hordes and wandering tribes find peace and ſecurity, and a poſſibility of procuring ſufficient proviſions in any diſtrict, they take up their reſidence in it, and adopt, inſenſibly, a ſettled life, and the arts of cultivation. But when, on the contrary, the tyranny of the government drives the inhabitants of a village to extremity, the peaſants deſert their houſes, withdraw with their families into the mountains, or wander in the plains, taking care frequently to change their place of habitation, to avoid being ſurpriſed. It often happens even that individuals, turned robbers, in order to withdraw themſelves from the laws, or from tyranny, unite and form little camps, which maintain themſelves by arms, and, increaſing, become new hordes, and new tribes. We may

pronounce, therefore, that in cultivable countries, the wandering life originates in the injuſtice or want of policy of the government; and that the ſedentary and cultivating ſtate is that to which mankind is moſt naturally inclined.

'With reſpect to the Arabs, they ſeem eſpecially condemned to a wandering life, by the very nature of their deſerts. To paint to himſelf theſe deſerts, the reader muſt imagine a ſky almoſt perpetually inflamed, and without clouds, immenſe and boundleſs plains, without houſes, trees, rivulets, or hills, where the eye frequently meets nothing but an extenſive and uniform horizon, like the ſea, though in ſome places the ground is uneven and ſtoney. Almoſt invariably naked on every ſide, the earth preſents nothing but a few wild plants, thinly ſcattered, and thickets, whoſe ſolitude is rarely diſturbed but by antelopes, hares, locuſts, and rats. Such is the nature of nearly the whole country, which extends ſix hundred leagues in length, and three hundred in breadth, and ſtretches from Aleppo to the Arabian Sea, and from Egypt to the Perſian Gulf.

'It muſt not, however, be imagined that the ſoil in ſo great an extent is every where the ſame; it varies conſiderably in different places. On the frontiers of Syria, for example, the earth is in general fat and cultivable, nay, even fruitful. It is the ſame alſo on the banks of the Euphrates; but in the internal parts of the country, and towards the ſouth, it becomes white and chalky, as in the parallel of Damaſcus; rocky, as in the Tih and the Hedjaz; and a pure ſand, as to the eaſtward of the Yemen. This variety in the qualities of the ſoil is productive of ſome minute differences in the condition of the Bedouins. For inſtance, in the more ſterile countries, that is, thoſe which produce but few plants, the tribes are feeble, and very diſtant; which is the caſe in the deſert of Suez, that of the Red Sea, and the interior of the great deſert, called the Nejd. When the ſoil is more fruitful, as between Damaſcus and the Euphrates, the tribes are more numerous, and leſs remote from each other; and laſtly, in the cultivable diſtricts, ſuch as the Pachalics of Aleppo, the Hauran, and the neighbourhood of Gaza, the camps are frequent and contiguous. In the former inſtances, the Bedouins are purely paſtors, and ſubſiſt only on the produce of their herds, and on a few dates and fleſh meat, which they eat either freſh, or dried in the ſun, and reduced to a powder. In the latter, they ſow ſome land, and add cheeſe, barley, and even rice, to their fleſh and milk meats.

'If we examine the cauſes of the ſterility and uncultivated ſtate of the deſert, we ſhall find it is principally to be attributed to the abſence of fountains and rivers, and in general to the want of water. This want of water itſelf is occaſioned by the nature of the country, which, being flat and deſtitute of mountains, the clouds glide over its heated ſurface, as I have already remarked is the caſe with Egypt. They never reſt there but in winter, when the coldneſs of the atmoſphere hinders them from riſing, and diſſolves them into rain. The nakedneſs of this country is alſo another cauſe of drought, ſince the air is for that reaſon more eaſily heated, and compels the clouds to riſe. It is probable that a change of climate might be effected, if the whole deſert were planted with trees; as for example, with pine-trees.

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'The conſequence of the winter rains is, that in thoſe parts where the ſoil is good, as on the frontiers of Syria, a cultivation takes place conſiderably ſimilar to that of even the interior of the province; but as theſe rains neither produce ſprings nor durable rivulets, the inhabitants are expoſed to the inconvenience of wanting water the whole ſummer. To remedy this it is neceſſary to have recourſe to art, and to form wells, reſervoirs, and ciſterns, in which they collect their annual ſupplies: ſuch works require money and labour, and are, after all, expoſed to a variety of accidents. War may deſtroy in one day the labour of many months, and the reſources of the year. A drought, which is but too common, may cauſe the failure of a crop, and reduce the inhabitants even to a total want of water. It is true, that by digging it is almoſt every where to be found, at from ſix to twenty feet depth; but this water is brackiſh, as in all the deſert of Arabia and Africa; it alſo frequently dries up, when thirſt and famine ſucceed; and, if the government does not lend its aid, the villages are deſerted. It is evident that agriculture muſt be very precarious in ſuch a country; and that under a government like that of the Turks, it is ſafer to lead a wandering life than to chuſe a ſettled habitation, and rely for ſubſiſtence on agriculture.'

In the ſecond volume M. Volney gives an account of the cultivating or ſedentary inhabitants of Syria, which are divided into the Anſarians, the Maronites, the Druzes, and the Motoualis. He next deſcribes the diviſion of Syria into pachalics or governments, under the Turkiſh empire; the chief of which are Aleppo, Tripoli, Sarde, Damaſcus, and Paleſtine. In the pachalics of Saide and Damaſcus are the celebrated ruins of Balbek and Palmyra, ſo well illuſtrated by Mr. Wood, whoſe *Ruins of Palmyra* were publiſhed in 1753. That judicious traveller diſtinguiſhes two ſorts of ruins at Palmyra, one the work of remote ages, which are only rude unſhapen maſſes; while the others are elegant and magnificent monuments, and appear from the ſtyle of their architecture, to have been erected in the three centuries preceding Dioclefian, in which the Corinthian order was preferred to every other. Palmyra, ſituated three days journey from the Euphrates, was indebted for its wealth and ſplendour to the advantage of its poſition on one of the greateſt roads, by which the valuable commerce that has at all times ſubſiſted between India and Europe was then carried on. The inhabitants were at the height of their proſperity, when, become a barrier between the Romans and the Parthians, they maintained a politic neutrality in their diſputes, and rendered the luxury of thoſe powerful empires ſubſervient to their own opulence.

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The hiſtorian Joſephus informs us * that "Solomon built "ſtrong walls around this city to ſecure himſelf in the "poſſeſſion of it, and named it Tadmour, which ſignifies "the place of palm-trees." No mention, however, is made of this in ſacred ſcripture; and our author's conjecture "that the merchandize coming from India by the Perſian "Gulf, was conveyed by way of the Euphrates into Phœ-"nicia and Aſia Minor," appears too refined, and even fallacious. Both the Jews and Phœnicians traded to the Perſian Gulf and the adjacent regions; but the cargoes which they brought from thence were landed at Elath and Eziongeber, two harbours on the Red Sea. The Phœnician merchandize was carried by land to Rhinocolura, a port in the Mediterranean, and being reſhipped there was tranſported to Tyre. The importance of Palmyra as an emporium for Indian merchandize coming by the Perſian Gulf, does not ſeem to have ariſen till long after the conqueſts of Alexander the Great.

Upon the whole, the reader will meet with much rational information and elegant entertainment in the travels of M. Volney, particularly his travels into Syria. He has avoided the errors of former French travellers, who have indulged the ſallies of imagination at the expence of veracity, and ſought to embelliſh facts rather than to record them. He is leſs ambitious of making brilliant obſervations than juſt ones, and wiſhes rather to inform the reader than to throw an illuſion over his mind. Perhaps this work would have been more agreeable if the author, inſtead of communicating the reſult of his diſcoveries and reflections, had, by a narration of his own progreſs and adventures, carried the reader along with him, and made him a ſpectator of the ſcenes and tranſactions which are deſcribed. It is this that diſtinguiſhes a book of travels from a didactic work. The idea that an author relates events *quorum pars magna vel parva fuit*, gives a charm to his narration which is not to be deſcribed. Some late tours are entirely indebted to this circumſtance for their favourable reception in the world.

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* Antiq. Jud. lib. viii. cap. 6.

ART.

ART. XIII. *La Religion considérée comme l'unique Base du Bonheur et de la Veritable Philosophie. Ouvrage fait pour servir à l'Education des Enfans de S. A. S. Monseigneur le Duc d'Orleans, et dans lequel on expose et l'on réfute les Principes des prétendus Philosophes Modernes. Par Madame la Marquise de Sillery, ci-devant Madame la Comtesse de Genlis.* Octavo et Duodecimo. Orleans, 1787.

ART. XIII. *Religion considered as the only Source of Happiness and of true Philosophy, &c. &c. &c.*

WE have had more than one occasion to celebrate the genius and the attractive and amiable compositions of Madame de Genlis. We have not even been wanting to go out of our way to do homage to her abilities, and to introduce into articles of various descriptions, the just tribute of our applause. We shall therefore be credited when we remark, that it is not without a considerable degree of mortification that we find ourselves obliged, in the present instance, to change our language respecting this celebrated writer, and to hold up one of her productions as an object of almost uniform condemnation and censure. In treating of religion, Madame de Genlis has gone back to all the exploded errors and the unintelligible mysteries of the darkest ages of Christianity, and has accompanied the dogmatism with which they are inculcated, with the most illiberal and contemptible asperity against all those writers, whatever might be their subject, or however exalted their claims upon the public gratitude and favour, who have been known to entertain sentiments inimical to her creed.

It is a matter of some curiosity to observe that, at the same time that Madame de Genlis has laid aside the good humour, liberality, and *bon ton*, by which she was formerly distinguished, she has sunk into the character of a mere author, in the most unfavourable construction of that word. For ourselves, in the volume before us, we entirely lose the recollection of the amiable instructress and the accomplished preceptor leading her pupils in the paths of elegance, simplicity, and virtue. If we at all recollect the personal situation of the writer, it is only to regret that so much bigotry, and such a complication of mysticism and nonsense, should be inculcated on the rising family of the richest nobleman in Europe. In general, however, the features that are most conspicuous are the irascibility, the peevishness, the over-anxious sensibility to regards of selfishness, that have too often been

been injuriously imputed to the sons of poetry and genius. In the first publication of her work she guards with an extreme solicitude against the idea that she is now first attacking, what she calls "the sectaries of the modern philosophy." And having seen, just before the appearance of her second edition, an unfavourable critique of her work in the *Journal de Paris*, she replies to this critique in the most apparent bitterness and anguish of heart. She observes that "she had long "thought of sketching in some one of her publications an "idea of the rules upon the observation of which just cri-"ticism must always be founded; and she believes it will "be acknowledged that a *properer opportunity could not have* "*offered* than that which is suggested to her by the critique "in the *Journal de Paris*." She is at length convinced that she has too many enemies, and that her works have excited too much envy against her for her to expect a candid hearing in her own country; and she looks for ultimate justice to the journalists and reviewers of other nations.

The first chapter in the volume is entitled, Plan of the Work; and, with a peculiar degree of modesty the author requires of us, in relation to a performance of which we peremptorily pronounce that it has no vestige of a plan, "that "we should not judge of it till we have read the whole. If "we pass over one note or one single quotation, we may "incur the hazard of absolutely losing the thread of her "ideas and the chain of her arguments." In duty bound, as sober critics, we have complied with this requisition; but we could almost venture to pronounce that from not another man in the island of Great-Britain will the countess experience so much gallantry and passive obedience.

The three first points, after that of the being of a God, upon which Madame de Genlis insists, as most essential to the belief of religion, are those of everlasting torments, synergetic grace, and original sin. Upon these topics we will give our reader some specimens of her sentiments, that he may be enabled to judge for himself whether or no we be not fully justified in the censure we have pronounced.

'Repentance, during the present life, may be expiatory, because it is then the fruit of faith, and because it is productive of virtuous resolutions, or generous sacrifices. So long as a man breathes the vital air, so long he may place an undoubted confidence in the unbounded mercies of his Creator; but in the future world repentance is empty rage and unproductive regret. The visions which once played before the deluded fancy are vanished; the deceptions of a corrupt heart annihilated for ever. Fearful and terrible will

will be that period when the ſoul, enlarged from her ſublunary ties, will launch at once upon the ocean of eternity. No longer then will ſhe be able to repel or to undervalue thoſe truths which will appear before her in their unclouded luſtre. Then will ſhe be compelled to feel all the deformity of vice and all the beauty of virtue. But if ſhe be under the ſentence of divine reprobation, what benefit will ſhe derive from conceiving thoſe myſteries, which, during her abode upon earth, ſhe was unable to comprehend? Belief, ſtripped of its value, cannot now derive holineſs from the grace of faith; there will no longer be any *merit in believing* that there is a God, the creator and the judge of mortals; he will be beheld by the eyes of the ſinner, the ſentence of his juſtice will ſound in his ears. The alarmed ſpirit will have loſt irretrievably the ſeducing errors which diſguiſe from us the littleneſs of pride, and the fooliſhneſs of human wiſdom. Robbed of its prepoſſeſſions, its prejudices, and its paſſions, it will no longer be able to conceal from itſelf the truth, that vice is an object of hatred; but it will deſpiſe vice without being purged from its crimes. The horror with which guilt will be beheld will be involuntary, unmeritorious, and irreſiſtible. The period of ſacrifices and of penances will be cloſed. The power of going aſtray will be removed, and the force that enables us to ſtifle the voice of conſcience. Every thing is clear, naked, and unveiled. A ſupernatural light preſents on all ſides the damning evidence; and the means of repairing our errors are no more. Thus it appears that the LIGHT OF REASON is ſufficient of itſelf to demonſtrate to us how impoſſible it is that after death the guilty ſoul ſhould feel one meritorious emotion of regret. It muſt unchangeably remain in its ſtate of contamination and puniſhment; and ſuch, ſays Bourdaloue, is this terrible myſtery of the faith. "*The ſinners in hell will* "*be eternally employed in lamentation; repentance will be the* "*conſtant buſineſs of that fearful habitation; but it will be a* "*compulſory repentance, a repentance of demons and deſpair.* "*Now a repentance like this can never have power to do away* "*ſin. Of conſequence ſin will always ſubſiſt; and as long as* "*ſin ſubſiſts the ſinner will be, not only in the firſt moment but* "*in every ſucceeding one, obnoxious to the juſtice of God, and* "*the proper ſubject of his vengeance.*"

What an execrable collection of nonſenſe is here preſented to us! It is truly aſtoniſhing how a mind elegant, accompliſhed, and humane, can for a moment give place to ideas that are not only in open hoſtility with common ſenſe, but that can originally have been dictated only by the moſt ſombre

ſombre miſanthropy, and the moſt unrelenting ſuperſtition. In the name of all that is ſacred, give us atheiſm, if the belief of a God is to be attended with theſe deteſtable conſequences! What an idea does the counteſs ſuggeſt to us in what ſhe calls the "*merit of believing.*" Can any thing be more deſtructive of reaſon and philoſophy? Is it poſſible that we can come to a fair and impartial examination of arguments, when we are given to underſtand in the firſt inſtance, that there is a merit in believing on one ſide of the queſtion, and conſequently a guilt in aſſenting to the other. What merit can I poſſibly have in believing what is forced upon me by unanſwerable demonſtration? There may indeed be a merit, ſometimes greater and ſometimes leſs, in impartiality; but there muſt always be guilt, in the eyes of a ſober inquirer, in leaning, independently of arguments, to one ſide of the queſtion rather than the other. Indeed, the moment we come to admit that there is a *merit in believing*, then undoubtedly the leſs evidence we find, the more virtue we have an opportunity to exert. He that believes upon no evidence, will be a better ſaint than he who is able to aſſign "*a reaſon for the hope that is in him*;" and he that believes againſt a ſtrong preponderance of evidence on the other ſide, will be the beſt man of all. If there be virtue in believing, then we muſt all come at laſt to the good old principle of Tertullian, which is the conſummation of the ſort of ſyſtem upon which we animadvert, "*Credo quia eſt impoſſibile.*"

The following are the reaſonings of Madame de Genlis upon the ſubject of grace:

'Man was created free; but, ſince the fall of Adam, he has more inclination for that which is evil, than propenſity to that which is good. In the mean time, though fallen from his primitive dignity, he can ſtill feel all the excellence of virtue, and, by the exertion of his reaſon and his faculties, determine himſelf in her favour, and triumph over the paſſions which would ſeduce him from her obedience. But, in what immediately belongs to his ſalvation, human liberty is not ſufficient. In this caſe he has need of the ſuccours of grace. A ſound underſtanding and a rational ſelf-love conſtitute all that is requiſite to make him what the world calls a good man; but to the compoſition of a ſaint, and of one of the elect, there is need alſo of a ſupernatural virtue. If man have not this virtue in himſelf, he may have the merit to deſire and to pray for it; and then, if his life be innocent and his prayers importunate, it will be granted him. God does not deny his grace to thoſe who feel

feel a ſincere deſire to obtain it; and he often pours it into the hearts of thoſe who are in appearance the leaſt prepared for its reception.'

To ſpecimens of the mode of thinking of our author ſo complete as the above, little can be added. A ſingle ſentence upon the ſubject of tranſubſtantiation it may be proper to record. "The ſacrament of the euchariſt unites us to "God by the moſt auguſt of all ceremonies, by which the "true believer is made the habitation and the temple of his "creator." It will not, after this, aſtoniſh our readers if we acquaint them that, in a liſt of heretics ſubjoined to her work, our author has ſtated it as an error of no common magnitude that it was taught by ſome of theſe deluded and reprobate characters that Socrates, Cato, and ſome of the moſt virtuous of the heathens, would not be condemned to everlaſting torments in the flames of hell, merely becauſe they did not live within ear-ſhot of the thunders of the Vatican. Upon the whole, it may hereafter be conſidered as by no means one of the leaſt wonderful phenomena of the preſent age, that, within thirteen years of the cloſe of the eighteenth century, ſuch doctrines as theſe were inculcated from the preſs by one of the moſt elegant and accompliſhed characters of the firſt court in Europe. Condemned as we have been to wade through ſuch a chaos of myſticiſm and abſurdity, we could not avoid frequently contraſting in our mind the follies of this popiſh compoſition with the rational inſtructions of our own church, as they are exhibited by a Porteus, a Butler, and a Hurd.

From the manner in which our author has ſtated the doctrines of Chriſtianity, we proceed to give ſome account of the treatment ſhe has beſtowed upon the enemies of revelation. In doing this it is natural for us to regret their unfortunate ſituation in having no face of Chriſtianity preſented to their view but that which is big with contradictions, intolerance, and damnation. How was it poſſible that ſuch a ſyſtem could ever be digeſted by them? Can we imagine men of enlarged and philoſophical views, a Monteſquieu, a d'Alembert, a Raynal, and an Helvetius, heſitating, under theſe circumſtances, which ſide of the alternative to adopt, or doubting for a moment between popery and infidelity? A rational Chriſtian will undoubtedly be diſpoſed to make them every allowance, and to acknowledge that, though it was poſſible, it was ſcarcely to be expected, that they ſhould diſcern and embrace the true Chriſtianity through the impenetrable miſt of bigotry and corruption in which it was inveloped.

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The writers who adhere to what Madame de Genlis ſtyles "the modern philoſophy," are treated by her with the moſt illiberal aſperity; and in this liſt are included Fontenelle, Monteſquieu, Voltaire, Rouſſeau, Helvetius, d'Alembert, Diderot, the author of the *Syſteme de la Nature*, the author of the work entitled *Les Mœurs*, the Abbé Raynal, and the Marquis de Condorcet. In this liſt is included almoſt all that has been great and reſpectable in the literature of France ſince the days of Louis the Fourteenth. Conſcious of this, our author has made an impotent attempt to diminiſh the apparent foolhardineſs of the cruſade ſhe has undertaken againſt them. She contraſts them with Crebillon, a religious poet, and even with the Abbé Nonnotte, and the other low and profligate adverſaries of Voltaire. The Count de Buffon, though his claim to the title of a freethinker will ſcarcely be diſputed, is excuſed from appearing in the company of theſe reprobates on account of his perſonal friendſhip with the author. Fontenelle is not conſidered as regularly belonging to the troop, ſince the only one of the fifty volumes of his works which is arraigned by Madame de Genlis is his Dialogues of the Dead. Monteſquieu and Rouſſeau ſhe is willing partly to excuſe, becauſe, "though many of their writings are pernicious, "they have conferred valuable obligations upon the public, "and by their rare talents are juſtly entitled to a great re-"putation." She ſhews, however, repeatedly her averſion to Rouſſeau by always quoting him with his Chriſtian name of Jean Jacques, and by beſtowing on John Baptiſt Rouſſeau, one of the minor poets of France, but whoſe name is ſcarcely known beyond the limits of his own country, the diſtinguiſhing and triumphant appellation of *the great Rouſſeau*. For the other authors, whoſe names we have recited, ſhe allows no quarter but to Voltaire; and to him only on the ſcore of his tragedies; and peremptorily denies of the reſt that they poſſeſs the leaſt glimmering of genius or literary merit. "The works," ſays ſhe, "which I have quoted "are indeed, from one end of them to the other, entitled "to our ſovereign contempt; ſuch are the irreligious writ-"ings of Voltaire, the *Penſées Philoſophiques* of Diderot, the "works entitled *De l'Eſprit*, *Les Mœurs*, &c. but they have "been raiſed from their natural obſcurity by the extra-"vagant and perſevering praiſes which have been beſtowed "upon them by a cabal formed in their favour. This ca-"bal, however, it ſeems began to exiſt only in the middle "of the preſent century, and has received an irretrievable

"check

" check by the death of its founder." So that its fair adversary expresses herself ready to exclaim, in the words of the Psalmist, " *I have seen the wicked in great power, and* " *spreading himself like a green bay-tree; yet he passed away,* " *and lo, he was not; yea, I sought him, but he could not be* " *found.*" The zeal of our author has carried her one step farther than we have yet mentioned, and she has employed ten pages in the appendix of her work, (in order, we suppose, to shew the impartiality of her remarks) to prove that d'Alembert and Diderot were as barbarous in their style as they are unfriendly to the countess's sentiments in the tendency of their productions. " With the exception of " Voltaire," adds she, " who possessed a real superiority of " intellect, all the other enemies of religion resemble the " madman, who, having no pretensions to an honourable " fame, and desiring nothing more than an empty celebrity, " burnt the temple of Ephesus in order to immortalize his " name."

[*To be concluded in our next.*]

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

[*For NOVEMBER* 1787.]

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. 14. *The Romance of Real Life. By Charlotte Smith. In Three Volumes.* 12mo. 9s. boards. Cadell. London, 1787.

THE sonnets of Miss Charlotte Smith are chaste, elegant, and sentimental, and give the fair authoress a name in the poetical world. The publication before us, which is selected and abridged from the *Causes Célèbres* by Richer, &c. will not add to her reputation. The horrid catalogue of crimes which is here brought forward to public view would disgust and shock us from any pen, more especially from that of a lady who had formerly delighted the public with a pleasing though melancholy vein of feeling and reflection. Trials in a court of justice, whether celebrated or infamous, though they illustrate the characters of individuals, by no means give an impartial picture of life or of mankind. The temperature of a climate is not to be judged of by storms and tempests. There is this peculiarity too in the French trials, that they are intermixed with fiction and falsehood. For it is as impossible to prevent the French from embellishing (*anglice*, lying) even in their serious narrations, as to keep a cat from valerian,

or kittens (and the young of *ſome other* animals) from playing with their tails; or an alderman from turtle; or Dr. Prieſtley from inflammable air, controverſy, and the Trinity; or Peter Pindar from the King; or the laureat from the times of chivalry; or a dramatic poeteſs from double entendres; or Mr. Burke from metaphors and ſimilies; or Sir Richard Hill from the ſcripture; or the Duke of Richmond from fortifications; or a long ſentence, like the preſent, from ending with an &c. &c.

We adviſe, therefore, our fair authoreſs to *return to her firſt love*; to renounce henceforth and for ever murders, maſſacres, treaſons, rapes, adulteries, &c. and betake herſelf to roſes and lilies; to Damon and Amaryllis; to turtles and tenderneſs; to ſtreamlets and ſentiment; to moonlight and melancholy; to nightingales and true lovers, and true love knots.

ART. 15. *Adventures of Jonathan Corncob, Loyal American Refugee.* 12mo. 3s. Robinſons. London, 1787.

Jonathan Corncob is not a man of feeling; and his Adventures are not diſtinguiſhed by any peculiar delicacy of ſentiment. They are not likely to be introduced into the blue-ſtocking ſociety, or to become a companion to the tea-table or the toilette. They contain, however, a genuine vein of humour and ſtrong ſatire, although the ore be not very refined. The ridicule on American manners is diverting, though ſometimes carried to exceſs. The account of Barbadoes, and of the vices and follies which prevail in the Weſt-Indies, is juſt and natural. The ſea-ſcenes have alſo their merit; the characters of Captain Furnace and Quid, though not new, are well ſupported; the trial of the latter, and his acquittal, would have been more reliſhed after a late celebrated naval trial.

The chief defect of this novel is the want of plan and arrangement; the incidents are totally unconnected, and the concluſion brings no cataſtrophe. One merit, however, theſe Adventures undeniably poſſeſs; the author paints from the life, and deſcribes ſcenes of which he has been a ſpectator. Paſtorals have been written by authors and authoreſſes who never ſaw cowſlips or primroſes but in Covent-Garden; and who know no other kind of turtles except thoſe which are ſerved up at a lord-mayor's feaſt: but no reader will call in queſtion Jonathan Corncob's intimate acquaintance with the quarter-deck, the cabin, and every apartment belonging to a man of war; and indeed his performance, upon the whole, is entertaining and manly.

ART. 16. *Miſcellaneous Poetry, by Mrs. Weſt. Written at an early Period of Life.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Swift. London, 1787.

This lady informs us, in an advertiſement, that the applauſe which her poems received from a few reſpectable individuals firſt ſuggeſted the idea of publication. "The candid part of mankind," ſhe affirms, "will not indulge the ſeverity of criticiſm when they are informed that the writer is ſo fully engroſſed by the eſſential duties of domeſtic life as not to be able to conſider poetry in any other light than as an agreeable relaxation."

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The poetical lady is deceived. The candid part of mankind, if they understand any thing of literature, will admit no excuse for the publication of incorrect and slovenly verses. The very excuse she offers is totally nugatory. Let it be inverted—suppose Mrs. West giving a dinner to some citizens of *taste*, and prefacing the entertainment thus: "Gentlemen, if the fowls and bacon are boiled to rags, and the sirloin roasted to a cinder, you will not grumble when you are informed that I am so fully engrossed by the duties of poesy as not to be able to consider cookery in any other light than as an agreeable relaxation." Would this make an ill-cooked dinner go down, or procure the landlady the title of a notable housewife? Hardly.

The poetess professes, in her first stanza, to have tried every expression "by rigid syntax;" yet in the same page we find this *flowing* line;

'And trod regardless on spring's op'ning flower.'

What ear can suffer this? A little onward we find *deceiv'd* and *perceiv'd* set down for rhymes!

There are, upon the whole, some wandering rays of genius in these poems, but little appearance of learning, taste, or judgment.

ART. 17. *The Distressed Poet; a Serio Comic Poem, in Three Cantos. By George Keate, Esq.* 4to. 4s. Dodsley. London, 1787.

'Squire Keate, we are given to understand by this publication, had built a house, which house prematurely fell in ruins about his ears; and thereupon ensued a litigation with the builder, in which the distressed poet was foiled. All these calamities he ascribes to his desertion of the muses, and his attachment to the study of nature. To a classical reader this must appear a very dark sentence: for he knows that the muses are allegorical beings, representing the study of different parts of nature. Upon such a foundation, however, is Mr. Keate's poem built; he returns, a penitent deserter, to the muses, and prays that, *by them enabled*, he may write to pay his *lawyer's bill*. "I wish," said my uncle Toby, "it may answer."

ART. 18. *More Odes upon Odes; or, A Peep at Peter Pindar; or, Falsehood detected; or, What you will.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Lowndes. London, 1787.

The observation concerning Falstaff, "that he was not only witty himself, but the cause of wit in other men," cannot be applied to Peter Pindar. Whatever powers of wit, humour, or satire he possesses himself, he has communicated none to his answerers and antagonists; like an insulated body, which, though full of electric fire, never imparts it to others. His opponents, indeed, have never brought themselves into notice by their opposition, and appear more in the light of captives to grace his triumph, than enemies to dispute his prowess. He has wisely therefore *let them alone*, and permitted them *to die of themselves*. The Adventures of Jack the Giant-killer exhibit the *wonderful* and the *marvellous*, which, according to Aristotle, ought to prevail in

the higher kinds of poetry; but if the ſtory had been reverſed, and the giant had killed Jack, it would have contained that *veriſimilitude* which, according to the foreſaid Ariſtotle, is only proper for proſe. A very few extracts will illuſtrate this obſervation and the *merit* of the poem before us. Mentioning Peter, he ſays

> 'Thus have you amplify'd the cenſur'd ode,
> And made it by your *hocus pocus* mode
> As *outrè* as the moſt *outrè* of creatures.
>
> To candour's coſt—how very readily
> May happieſt words be turned to irony!
>
> I muſt, however, from your *tart douceurs*
> Beſtow'd upon the courtly *amateurs*,
> To ſeaſon my *jobation* cull a few.

Our author's talents are equally adapted to panegyric as to ſatire—obſerve how he praiſes the king:

> 'A monarch who prefers domeſtic joys,
> And calm retirement, to pomp and noiſe;
> Whoſe is, by due deſert, the gracious meed
> To the *good man* by Salem's king decreed*.
>
> An offspring ſuch as empire never grac'd,
> All ſtraight and comely like a *colonade*.'

Qu. In what reſpect does the Prince of Wales, or the Princeſs Royal, reſemble a *colonade*?

ART. 19. *The Fleaiad, an Heroic Poem, with Notes, humbly addreſſed to Peter Pindar, Eſq. by his* kinſman *Paul Pindar, Gent.* 4to. 2s. Kearſley, London, 1787.

Paul Pindar is no more akin to Peter than a Louſe is to a Flea: the former is the companion of a man, the latter the aſſociate of a dog. It is but juſtice to aſſert, however, that the ridicule in this poem is not aimed at Peter Pindar, but at the lords of the bedchamber, the court ſycophants, and even m——y itſelf. St. Paul the apoſtle ſays of himſelf, "*that he withſtood St. Peter to the face*, becauſe he *was to be blamed*. In explaining this paſſage of Holy Writ, St. Jerom ſays that the two apoſtles were like two pleaders at the bar, who oppoſed one another in public, but were very good friends in private. Such, perhaps, is the ſituation of Peter Pindar and Paul. The author of this poem poſſeſſes general learning, knowledge of the world, and talents for better things.

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* "Thy wife ſhall be as a fruitful vine," &c. the Laureat too, in his firſt ode, mentioned his M——y's talents for getting children.

ART.

ART. 20. *Inkle and Yarico; an Opera in three Acts: as performed at the Theatre-Royal in the Hay-Market. By George Colman, jun.* 1s. 6d. Robertson. London, 1787.

In this opera the truth of history is agreeably violated by Inkle's being represented as ashamed of the ingratitude which his baseness had projected. An interesting contrast is exhibited between his servant's generous acknowledgments, and his own skulking treachery. The former nobly defies all change of fortune to alienate his remembrance from Yarico's attendant, to whom he owes his preservation; the latter meanly seeks, by the vilest means, to free himself from the most powerful obligation. Upon the whole, this piece is not unattractive; without reaching the highest region of wit, the dialogue is lively; and the characters, without being strongly marked, are drawn with sufficient discrimination.

ART. 21. *The Conjurer Unmasked; or, La Magie Blanche Devoilee: being a full and clear Explanation of all the surprizing Performances exhibited as well in this Kingdom as on the Continent, by the most eminent and dexterous Professors of Slight of Hand: together with Descriptions, Observations, and Directions for the Tricks of the Divining Rod, Automaton Chess-Player, Self-performing Organ, Speaking Figure, Artificial Serpents, Mechanical Birds, Automaton Flute-Player, Transparent Magical Tables, &c. &c. Translated from the French of Mr. Decremps.* 2s. 6d. Denton. London, 1787.

This title page is sufficiently explanatory of the merits of the performance, and acquaints the reader how much knowledge he may gain, or rather how much deceit he may detect, for half-a-crown.

ART. 22. *A Panegyric on Frederic III. King of Prussia. Translated from the French (which is annexed) of M. Laureau, Historiographer to the Count D'Artois. By Henry Charles Christian Newman, B. A. of Trinity College, Cambridge.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Kearsley. London, 1787.

There is a considerable portion of fire and elegance in M. Laureau's Panegyric on the King of Prussia; but the force and beauty of the original is very imperfectly preserved in the translation. In many parts it is obscure; and, in still greater number, insipid.

ART. 23. *The Vision; a Poem to the Memory of Jonas Hanway, Esq.* 1s. 6d. Dodsley. London, 1787.

This well-intended tribute to the memory of a very deserving character is not destitute of merit. Without having a claim to the more striking beauties of poetry, it possesses a degree of sensibility which never fails to render any composition where it is found interesting and attractive.

POETRY.

ART. 24. *The Fall of Scepticism and Infidelity predicted; an Epistle to Dr. Beattie.* 8vo. 2s. Cadell. London, 1787.

Predicted, but not accomplished. To this poetical epistle, which is rather below mediocrity, there are subjoined dissertations on several metaphysical and religious subjects. In these we meet with some curious

rious particulars, especially with regard to the sentiments Dr. Priestley entertains for the common-sense philosophers of Aberdeen. He affirms that "he has read their works with astonishment, indignation, and contempt: that he can discover nothing in them but pride, arrogance, bigotry, ignorance, airs of self-sufficiency, contempt of predecessors, insolence, superciliousness, gross abuse, Quixotism, rant, quibble, and misrepresentation; and that he solemnly believes that their doctrines and principles tend to atheistical conclusions *."

It appears that Dr. Priestley is such a zealous champion for religion that he will allow nobody to defend it except itself.

ART. 25. *The Pittiad; or Poetico-Political History of William the Second. In Five Cantos. By Timothy Twisting, Esq.* 4to. 3s. Jarvis. London, 1787.

Poor and pitiful abuse against the premier, who pays no more regard to the fooleries and ravings of antiministerial writers than a wise man does to the logic and rhetoric of a parrot, who calls "rogue and cuckold" to all the passengers in the street.

POLITICAL.

ART. 26. *State of Alterations which may be proposed in the Laws for regulating the Election of Members of Parliament for Shires in Scotland. By Sir John Sinclair, Bart.* 8vo. 1s. Cadell. London, 1787.

From a late decision of the lord-chancellor concerning nominal and fictitious voters for shires in Scotland, the interposition of the legislature to ascertain the right of electing representatives for counties in that part of the kingdom, has become indispensably necessary. The laws which regard that important privilege, as they now stand, are in the highest degree uncertain, and liable to much abuse. It is agreed, on all hands, that new regulations are necessary, though very different opinions are formed concerning the mode of these alterations. In discussing this important subject Sir John Sinclair considers three points: 1. What the laws respecting the election of members for counties in Scotland originally were. 2. What they now are. 3. What they ought to be for the future.

On the first head, the origin of the representation of counties in Scotland, Sir John Sinclair discovers an intimate acquaintance with the history of feudal law, and the Scottish constitution. In inquiring "what the law now is," he briefly states the laws that were enacted from the Restoration to the Union; from the Union to the present time; and the interpretation given to these laws by the courts of justice.

He next proposes "alterations for the consideration of the legislature;" and suggests the most material and important information when this question comes to be discussed before the House of Commons.

* Page 119, 120.

There

There is an elegance and a modeſty in the concluſion of this pamphlet which we have ſeldom met with in productions of ſuch a nature:

'The reader will eaſily perceive that the preceding hints are merely intended to lay the foundation of a ſyſtem, and not to explain a ſyſtem already formed; to draw forth the opinions of others, and not to ſtate the ſentiments of the author. His object and intentions are, early next ſeſſion of parliament, either to move for the appointment of a committee to take the ſubject into conſideration, or to propoſe a plan the moſt likely to be uſeful to the public, and acceptable to individuals, that any exertions in his power can produce. For that purpoſe, no pains on his part ſhall be wanting; no means of procuring aſſiſtance ſhall be rejected, nor any decided opinion formed, whilſt there is any probability of procuring new lights or additional information. He truſts that his countrymen will excuſe any appearance of preſumption he may have been guilty of in ſtepping forward on ſuch an occaſion; and he flatters himſelf that thoſe who have bent their attention to the ſubject will favour him with their aſſiſtance, from the great legal and political oracles of the houſes to the retired individual, who, though at a diſtance from the buſy and turbulent ſcenes of popular aſſemblies, feels himſelf warmly and deeply intereſted in every thing that can promote the general welfare and intereſt of the community.'

The repreſentatives of the counties form the moſt reſpectable body of men in the Houſe of Commons; and every plan that can render the election of theſe more pure and more conſtitutional, is highly worthy the attention of the nation, and the conſideration of the legiſlature. The abuſes that prevail at preſent in the county elections for Scotland are groſs and flagrant. The ſentiments of the nation have revolted, and the voice of the Houſe of Peers has confirmed theſe ſentiments. We hope the enlightened and ingenious author of this pamphlet will take an early opportunity of bringing the ſubjects of his inveſtigation before the Houſe of Commons, to experience the benefits of that control which a free nation, by its repreſentatives, exerciſes on itſelf. If he diſtinguiſh himſelf in parliament as he has done before the public, he will rank among the moſt conſpicuous ſenators from the northern part of the kingdom.

ART. 27. *Remonſtrance of the French Parliament to the King on the pernicious Tendency of the Stamp-Duty, &c.* 8vo. 1s. Robinſons. London, 1787.

A variety of cauſes has contributed to introduce a ſpirit of liberty into France. The influence of men of letters, which is more powerful in that country than in any part of the world, has contributed to prepare a revolution in the mind of the nation. Since the time of Monteſquieu, who held out the Engliſh conſtitution to the admiration of his countrymen, every ſucceeding author has been a zealous champion for the rights of human nature and public freedom. The conteſt between Great-Britain and her colonies, which eventually involved France in the quarrel, impreſſed on the natives of that kingdom the ſtriking diſtinction between the citizens of a free ſtate and the ſubjects of a deſpotic government. The contagious vicinity of England, the land of freedom, and the ready tranſmiſſion, by means of the public prints, of articles of intelligence that expreſs the free and independent ſpirit of

Engliſhmen, have awakened congenial feelings and correſponding fire in the breaſts of the French. The noble and the peaſant, the ſoldier and the citizen, are alike ardent in the public cauſe; and the electric ſhock hath pervaded the nation. On reviewing the hiſtory of our own country we find that conceſſions in favour of liberty were generally granted in the reigns of the weakeſt ſovereigns. The preſent ſituation of public affairs in France facilitates the ſtruggle, and favours the ſucceſs of the champions for freedom in that country. From the preſent aſpect of the political theatre a new ſcene is likely to open in the neighbouring kingdom.

This Remonſtrance of the French parliament to the king is calm and enlightened, but ſpirited and decided. It conveys free and bold ſentiments in gentle and inſinuating language; and is equally a model of patriotiſm and of eloquence.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS

For NOVEMBER 1787.

TURKS AND RUSSIANS.

THE ſuppoſed confederacy of European powers to expel the Turks from Europe, and to divide the dominions of the Sublime Porte, renders the riſe, the duration, and poſſible fall, of that great empire an intereſting ſubject of inquiry and ſpeculation. Near five centuries have elapſed ſince the commencement of the Ottoman power. Motamaſem, the eighth caliph of the Abbaſian line, introduced this race of barbarians to the throne of Mahomet. The numerous body of Turcomans, a ferocious people who had ſprung from Scythia, whom he kept in his pay and attached to his ſervice, becoming conſcious of their own ſtrength and the weakneſs of their maſters, gradually aſſumed the reins of government. Having embraced Iſlamiſm, they roſe to the honours of the ſtate; admitted to an intimacy with the caliphs, they fomented quarrels between the princes of the blood, and deſtroyed the one by the other. When the caliphate had become a vain title, and the empire was torn to pieces by the Selgicucid Turks, the Ottomans, deſcended from the Oguſian Turks, who had been expelled by inteſtine wars from the borders of the Caſpian Sea, effected another revolution. Othman, the braveſt of all the emirs, who led theſe ferocious barbarians, having ſeized Bithynia, became the founder of the Ottoman empire, which, under his ſucceſſors, continued gradually to extend its territories and augment its power, till Mahomet the Second having taken Conſtantinople, annihilated the laſt remains of Roman greatneſs, and ſeated himſelf on the throne of the Ceſars.

TURKISH

TURKISH FINANCES.

The finances, the military forces, and the power of this formidable government, are but little underſtood by the generality of readers. The chief impoſts, which are authoriſed by the Alcoran, are of four kinds: 1. The *Moukalaatou* is properly the domain of the ſword of Othman, the portion which the prince reſerved for himſelf at the diviſion of the conqueſts; of which three lots were made, the firſt for the monarch, the ſecond for the moſques, and the third for the troops. This laſt was divided into timars, or military benefices, which were diſtributed to the ſoldiers. The lands belonging to the prince in each of the provinces are farmed by the baſhaws. In this are likewiſe comprehended the maritime or frontier taxes, the confiſcations, which are very frequent in Turky, and the property of thoſe who die without heirs.

AVARIS.

The ſecond object of revenue is an impoſt called *Avaris*, ſimilar to our land-tax, which is collected indiſcriminately from all the lands ſituated in the domains of the emperor, in thoſe of the moſques, or in the timars. The occupiers of land are liable to this tax conformably to a certain rate, whether in the country or in the town, by whatever title they may hold their eſtates.

BACHARADG.

The third impoſt, of which frequent mention is made in the Alcoran, is the Bacharadg, a ſort of poll-tax, paid by all thoſe whom the muſſulmen call *Giaurs*, or infidels, ſuch as the Roman Catholics, the Greek church, the Armenians, and Jews. It conſiſts of an arbitrary impoſition, according to the ability and religion of thoſe whom the Turks call infidels. The Roman Catholics and the Jews are rated the higheſt.

GDGELEBKACHAN.

The fourth impoſt is called *Gdgelebkachan*, and has for its object the carrying of commodities, and other neceſſary effects, whether for the journeys of the ſultans, or the march of the troops. The neceſſity or avarice of the emperors or their miniſters, has made this impoſt like the poll-tax of the giaurs. This exaction has not a little contributed to the troubles and inſurrections that have haraſſed the empire.

The product of theſe four impoſts amounts to about one million five hundred forty-one thouſand and ſixty-ſix pounds ſterling. The products of Egypt, and the province of Bagdad, are not included in this account. Theſe two ſtates pay

the Porte a tribute in natural productions, ſuch as flax, coffee, ſugar, rice, lentils; they entertain all the troops employed in their defence; ſupport the whole expence of the adminiſtration; and, beſides the commodities juſt mentioned, ſend the Porte a tribute in money of fifty-eight thouſand three hundred and thirty-three pounds ſterling for Egypt, and forty-one thouſand ſix hundred and ſixty-ſix for Bagdad.

Such is the amount of the Turkiſh finances, according to the account of M. Degirardin and the Count of Marſigli. This does not give us a high idea of the riches of the Ottoman empire; but it is far from including all its reſources. It includes not the funds and revenues of the moſques, amounting to a third of the conqueſts, which belong to the ulema, or body of eccleſiaſtics. When the prieſts and cadis have received a ſalary, which is fixed, the remains of the revenues, ſaved under the inſpection of the Kiſlar Aga, are depoſited in a treaſury, and are not permitted to be touched but for wars of religion. But, as all their wars are againſt heretics, they are all counted religious; and thus the property of the moſques is applied to eaſe the burdens of the ſtate.

Beſides theſe regular ſources of revenue, the emperor frequently avails himſelf of that text in the Alcoran by which he is eſtabliſhed the repreſentative of God on earth to govern mankind by his ſovereign pleaſure. Although he is not "the ſole proprietor in his empire, and the heir of all "his ſubjects," as has been aſſerted by ſome authors, yet he can puniſh with death or confiſcation of property whomſoever he pleaſes, without the form of a trial, or even the crime being known.

SOLDIERY.

The Ottoman ſoldiery conſiſt of the Timarians, or holders of military benefices, who are obliged to entertain at their own expence, and to conduct to the army or the frontiers, in caſe of neceſſity, a number of troops in proportion to the value of their Timars. The Spahis, an order of cavalry better diſciplined, and more frequently aſſembled together, are paid out of the public treaſury, have greatly contributed to the numerous conqueſts which the emperors have made. That formidable body of infantry the Janiſſaries, have often ſupported and often ſhaken the throne. Two leſs conſiderable corps, the Jebeggis and Topgis, aſſiſt the Janiſſaries to enlarge the boundaries of the empire, or intimidate the emperor. The Aiaps, or Zegbans, are troops occaſionally aſſembled to ſerve in the moment of neceſſity, like the coaſt-guards and arriere-ban in France.

The

The military and fanatical fervour of the firſt muſſulmen, who were equally animated by the love of plunder and the glory of martyrdom, has in ſome meaſure evaporated. Still, however, the Turkiſh ſoldiery is high-ſpirited, brave, and obſtinate. Their firm belief in predeſtination corroborates the native ferocity of the Turks; but valour is their chief if not their ſole virtue. While the European nations, with whom they have been accuſtomed to engage in hoſtilities, have introduced improvements, and even revolutions, into the art of war, as well as into all other arts, the Ottomans continue ſtationary, and follow the example of their fathers. Attached to all the prejudices of paſt times, ignorant of military diſcipline, and unacquainted with the European improvements, how have they been enabled to preſerve ſuch extenſive and ſuch vulnerable dominions, and to defend themſelves againſt the meditated hoſtilities of powerful nations ſo far advanced in civility and the arts?

This inquiry becomes the more curious and important when we conſider the ſhort and tranſient duration in general of the Oriental kingdoms. The firſt Aſſyrian empire is ſaid to have ſubſiſted fifteen hundred years; but that belongs to the region of fable rather than of true hiſtory. When we come to the period of authentic record, we know that the ſovereignties of Nineveh and of Babylon had a ſudden termination. Even the empire of Cyrus, though eſtabliſhed by conſummate wiſdom as well as heroic valour, laſted only two hundred years. Modern Perſia has experienced the ſame revolutions as the ancient; and the throne of Iſpahan has often been ſhaken. But the Ottoman power, though ſituated in the neighbourhood of the moſt enlightened and warlike nations of the earth, remains invulnerable; as if the Turkiſh creed were true "that the houſe of Othman is "to laſt coeval with their empire, which is only to termi-"nate with the world."

THE CAUSES EXPLAINED.

Without attributing any thing miraculous or even marvellous to the interpoſition or protection of Mahomet, we may trace the palladium of Turky in the political ſituation and jealous ſpirit of the European nations. The powers of Europe form a kind of regal republic, in which no one kingdom can bear the tranſcendant elevation of another. Such a rich prize as the dominions of Turky, if graſped by any European potentate, would awaken the jealouſy and animoſity of the neighbouring ſtates. The empreſs of Ruſſia has frequently caſt an ambitious eye to Conſtantinople;

nople; has projected a new Greek empire; and given the name of Conſtantine the Second to a prince of her blood. But her great diſtance from the ſcene of hoſtility would expoſe her armies and navies to accidents often more fatal than the ſword. Notwithſtanding the attention ſhe has given to her marine, ſhe is far from being powerful at ſea. Beſides, the ſtrength of Ruſſia at preſent is ſtretched beyond its natural dimenſions. The empire is not alive in all its parts. The improvements which have taken place in the capital are not diffuſed among the provinces. While the motion of the heart is preternatural the extremities are frigid and motionleſs.

At the late conference between the emperor of Germany and the empreſs of Ruſſia at Cherſon, it is probable that this duumvirate might divide in imagination the ſpoils of the creſcent. But the character of the emperor is no longer problematical. His ambition is without nerves, and his activity is impotent. He has never been ſucceſsful but in his war againſt prieſts and nuns. Joſeph may have dreams and viſions of future greatneſs, but he is not likely to overturn empires, or to make a revolution in the world.

In the event of a Turkiſh war France, and of conſequence Spain, would ſecretly or openly aſſiſt the Sublime Porte; and England would not remain neuter in the conteſt. The king of Pruſſia would keep the emperor of Germany at bay. The political obſerver of human affairs muſt therefore poſtpone the expulſion of the Turks from Europe, and the fall of Mahomet, to a diſtant period. And happy it is for Chriſtendom that Turky ſhould remain in the poſſeſſion of its ancient lords.

Should war be carried on with vigour between the Porte and Ruſſia, it would be more terrible in its operations, and deſolating in its effects, than hoſtilities between other powers. The Tartar tribes, who are ſubject to the Turks, would, according to their uſual cuſtom, commit general devaſtation by fire and ſword. The apprehenſion of conſequences reſulting from a deſolated country affects not them; as they feed on the ſpare horſes which they carry along with them, they are unconcerned at the ravages of the countries through which they paſs. The Coſſacks of the Ukraine, who acknowledge the authority of Ruſſia, act in a ſimilar manner, and inflict the moſt dreadful cruelties. If the furies of war were let looſe in theſe ferocious regions, a ſcene of havoc and deſtruction would be the certain conſequence.

On the event of a ſucceſsful termination to the ſuppoſed confederacy of the emperor and empreſs, the funerals of Ottoman

Ottoman greatneſs would be celebrated with obſequies of blood. The fineſt provinces of Europe would furniſh a theatre of combats, and a ſcene of carnage to the conquerors as well as the conquered.

HOLLAND.

In another corner of the political hemiſphere, where there ſeemed to be *a cloud bigger than a man's hand*, that portended tempeſts and deſtruction, unexpected tranquillity and peace are apparently eſtabliſhed. But appearances in the political as well as in the natural world are often deceitful. There is a ſwell in the ſea when the tempeſt is over; and when a conflagration ſeems to be extinguiſhed, embers are often concealed in the aſhes. The ſtrong feelings of nations, like thoſe of individuals, may be defeated without being ſubdued; and from the reſtraint of temporary power the paſſions of men may recover their biaſs, and return to their natural bent with redoubled vigour. No ſuch appearances, however, can at preſent be diſcovered in the Dutch Netherlands. While daily acceſſions are made to the power of the ſtadtholder, and the limits ſet to his authority becoming more obſcure and inviſible, the republican zeal of the people has ceaſed to flame, or is changed into a ſpirit of ſubmiſſion and accommodation. In former times revolutions have been incident to free governments as well as to deſpotic; republics have been overturned, but ſeldom without the horrors of civil war, a copious effuſion of blood, and a violent convulſion of the whole political ſyſtem. Such a rapid, and at the ſame time ſuch a peaceful revolution, as that which has lately taken place in Holland, is unprecedented in hiſtory. Time only can inſtruct us in its progreſs and its conſequences. A cordial alliance between Great-Britain and the Dutch Netherlands would reſtore theſe provinces to their natural ſtation in the ſyſtem of Europe, and perhaps to their former proſperity and ancient ſplendour. The progreſs of America in opulence, refinement, and the arts, has been arreſted by the premature aſſertion of liberty and independence; the decline of the Dutch may be prevented, and their public felicity reſtored, by their recognizance of ancient leagues, and their return to legal authority.

FRANCE.

A ſpirit of liberty, and ideas with regard to the rights of mankind, have now pervaded the French nation. An enthuſiaſtic admiration of freedom has characteriſed the literati of France for half a century paſt; and as the influence of letters is more powerful in that kingdom than in any part of Europe, that enthuſiaſm is now diffuſed among the people.

The

The amiable and benevolent Fenelon was the firſt of theſe ſpeculative patriots, who, even during the reign, and at the court of Lewis the Fourteenth, exhibited in his Telemachus a bold portrait of deſpotiſm, and a ſatire on the ambition of that prince. Since Monteſquieu's "Spirit of Laws" began to enlighten Europe, and taught men to think like citizens, it has been a point of honour and of faſhion among the French to eſpouſe the cauſe of liberty, and to diffuſe the feelings of patriotiſm. Philoſophy, hiſtory, poetry, and romance, have united their forces to break the chains of ſlavery and to vindicate freedom. So ſtrong was the current of republican fervour, that even Voltaire, who, though he ſpurned at the altar, kneeled humbly at the foot of the throne, caught for once the contagion of philanthropy, and invoked the dramatic muſe to celebrate the patriotiſm of Brutus. The vicinity of England, the favoured land of freedom; the introduction of Engliſh books, and even newſpapers, which are read with avidity and enthuſiaſm; and the recent emancipation of America, at which the ſubjects of a deſpot became the aſſertors of liberty; have given the French nation a ſenſe of rights and privileges from which they are debarred, and a reliſh for bleſſings which they are not permitted to enjoy.

This general adoption of new political opinions in France forms an era in the hiſtory of that country. At the period of the reformation fanaticiſm was the powerful ally of patriotiſm in England, Switzerland, and the Low Countries; perhaps the faſhionable freethinking which at preſent characteriſes France may prove an auxiliary no leſs uſeful to the cauſe of freedom. Both theſe extremes deprive authority of its moſt powerful ſupport, ſuperſtition. Fanaticiſm, by conſecrating men in their own eyes, and raiſing them to immediate communications with heaven, gives an extraordinary elevation to the mind, from which it looks down with diſdain on all human eſtabliſhments. Freethinking operates in a different manner. By teaching the natural equality of mankind, it takes away the charm from crowns, ſceptres, thrones, and all the appendages of majeſty; and regarding the regal office as intended for the benefit of the people, conſiders the king as amenable to the tribunal of his ſubjects.

A change of political ſentiments in a nation, however, does not neceſſarily imply a change of government; and no revolution was ever brought about by the mere force of ſpeculation. The ſtrong preſſure of particular incidents muſt concur with the general paſſion for freedom to call

forth and concentrate the energy of a whole people. To this happy concurrence of particular circumſtances to corroborate general feelings, Athens, Rome, England, and Holland, have been indebted for their liberty. Nor have particular cauſes of diſcontents and murmurs againſt the government been wanting in France. During the adminiſtration of nine ſucceſſive miniſters the annual expenditure of France has exceeded the annual revenue. The enlightened and patriotic adminiſtration of M. Neckar forms the only exception. That upright ſtateſman and able financier, during the criſis of an expenſive war, rendered the receipt ſuperior to the expence; and by his vigilant adminiſtration would, in a few years, have extinguiſhed a great part of the national debt, if jealouſy and cabal had permitted him to remain in office. By an incredible and incomprehenſible diſſipation of the public money M. de Calonne has left a deficiency of a hundred and forty millions of French livres. New taxes, always odious in the time of peace, became neceſſary; thoſe propoſed by the monarch were particularly obnoxious; the voice of the people has reached the throne; and the king has made conceſſions to his parliaments.

The French nation, however, is by no means ripe for a revolution. A temporary diſguſt or indignation at an unpopular miniſtry, and even of the royal family, has excited a general ſpirit of oppoſition and murmuring, and rouſed the ſubjects of deſpotiſm to a freedom of ſpeech and conduct ſeldom diſcovered even in free governments. But violent paſſions are not the moſt laſting. It is probable that the tide will ebb as it has flowed. The character of the French is too volatile to be permanent. They are compoſed of materials too fine or frivolous to retain a durable impreſſion. In France there is a faſhion and a rage in philoſophy and politics as well as in dreſs. Some conceſſions in favour of the ſubject may be granted, as has been uſual during the reigns of weak princes. Some mitigations of arbitrary power may be made; perhaps *Lettres de Cachet* may be aboliſhed; the mode of levying and collecting taxes rendered leſs oppreſſive; and a LITTLE CHARTER of French privileges diſtinguiſh the reign of Lewis the Sixteenth.

MEETING OF PARLIAMENT.

No miniſter ever met parliament in a more dignified point of view than Mr. Pitt has done at the opening of the preſent ſeſſions. The members of the Houſe of Commons have for once unanimouſly expreſſed the general ſatisfaction and cordial congratulations of the nation which they repreſent. The events which

which have taken place during the receſs of parliament, have promoted the public proſperity, and added to the national honour. A dangerous rebellion has been ſuppreſſed in the Dutch Netherlands; a party who have uſurped dominion have been removed from power; an ancient ally has been reſtored to his hereditary dignity; and the bleſſings of legal government recovered to a country which was threatened with ſubjection to ariſtocratic tyranny. The ſubtile machinations of French policy have been detected and defeated; and the ambition of a reſtleſs rival humbled and depreſſed. After a long and calamitous war, in which this kingdom fought for its *exiſtence*, it roſe inſtantly to arms when ſummoned by the call of *juſtice* and of *honour*; by meritoriouſly ſtepping in to ſuccour the diſtreſſed, and to preſerve the independence of a country to which they were indebted for liberty at the glorious revolution, Britain has retrieved her rank among the nations, and reſumed her ancient dignity in the ſyſtem of Europe. While the objects of war have been gained abroad, the bleſſings of peace have been enjoyed at home; and tranquillity reſtored to the continent without the effuſion of blood.

The commercial advantages acquired by the nation have kept pace with the progreſs of its political importance, and to whatever point we look in the wide extended circle of our dominions, we diſcern the moſt auſpicious omens of public proſperity. The affairs of India not only retrieved but rendered flouriſhing; the diſorders in Ireland compoſed, and tranquillity reſtored to that turbulent iſland; the trade of America reverting to its ancient channel; an extenſion and increaſe of commerce beyond the examples of paſt times; the annual revenue exceeding the annual expenditure by a million and a half; commercial capital, ingenuity and induſtry, giving us the ſuperiority in every foreign market; and the balance of trade in our favour with all the nations of the world, are indications of preſent and promiſes of future felicity, that muſt give the moſt cordial ſatisfaction to every lover of his country, and inſpire a confidence in the meaſures of thoſe miniſters by whom ſuch advantages have been gained. So ſtrong, indeed, at preſent is the current of popular favour, that faction has ceaſed to murmur, and oppoſition to oppoſe.

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THE

SPIRIT OF THE TIMES.

LETTER

TO THE

RIGHT HON. WILLIAM PITT, *Continued.*

IT is not my intention, Sir, to enter particularly here into the diſcuſſion of the grounds of quarrel between us and Spain. Much has already been ſaid on this ſubject in the newſpapers, and in various publications. The authentic papers I have tranſcribed, will enable the public to judge of the arguments uſed on both ſides *, and were eſſential as an introduction to the proceedings in

* Mr. Dalrymple, in a Pamphlet, intitled, "The Spaniſh Pretenſions fairly diſcuſſed," obſerves, that, "From the time of Sir *Francis Drake*, no circumſtantial and authentic documents have been laid before the public, of voyages on this coaſt, (the North-weſt of America), till that of the Spaniards in 1775, in which they examined ſeveral harbours in latitude 55°. to 58°. North; but they viſited no part of the coaſt between 48°. and 55°. North latitude: ſo that the firſt public and authentic deſcription of *Nootka*, or *King George's Sound*, in 49°. ½ North latitude, and the parts adjacent, was given to the world in Captain Cook's laſt voyage 1778." And, in another pamphlet, "The Spaniſh Memorial of 4th June conſidered," he concludes thus:

"It is alledged, that, in the firſt communication from the Spaniſh Ambaſſador at the Court of London to the Miniſtry there on the 10th of February, he could not ſpecify many of the circumſtances *now known*, nor the *repeated acts* of poſſeſſion of Spain, on that coaſt and port, antecedent and ſubſequent to thoſe then cited.

in the National Aſſembly of France, which I am about to lay before my readers.

Let

" Not knowing what was ſaid in the communication of the 10th February, nor what *acts* of *poſſeſſion* are now referred to, I can only ſay, that there is every evidence the nature of the caſe is capable of admitting, to teſtify, that when Capt. Cook viſited King George's Sound, or Nootka, in 1778, the Natives were unacquainted with other Europeans: that it does not appear any Europeans, beſides Engliſh, had been *there*, 'till the trade thither was carried on by the Engliſh from India and England, and an amicable intercourſe with the Natives eſtabliſhed.

" It is alledged, that if the Court of London, at the time of replying to this communication of friendly complaint, given in the name of the King of Spain, againſt navigators which Spain reckoned contraband by the ſubſiſting treaties, had acted conſonant to the deſire now manifeſted to examine and accommodate theſe diſputes amicably, it would have ſaved much expence and diſguſt.

" Ignorant as I am of what paſſed on that occaſion, it is impoſſible to ſay how far this complaint of the want of early communication is well-grounded: but it is obvious, that it behoved Spain, if ſhe thought ſhe had any claims to the excluſive navigation of thoſe ſeas, to have urged ſuch claims amicably to the Court of Great-Britain, and to have communicated her intentions to enforce them, before orders were ſent to that effect: for the proceedings warrantable againſt illicit and contraband trade, are unwarrantable againſt a fair and open trade, avowedly carried on, under the countenance and protection of the State.

" The allegation, that the King of Spain does not mean to extend the pretenſion of " right to *all* the South Seas, even to China," but only to " the " ſovereignty, navigation, and excluſive commerce of the Continent and " Iſlands in the South Sea, in the manner *it has always been accuſtomed* to *under-* " *ſtand* the *words* in *treating* of *their Indies*," is not the moſt diſtinct and ſatisfactory method of explaining the extent of their pretenſions: it would have been more diſtinct " according to the acceptation of other nations," inſtead of the ſenſe they themſelves are accuſtomed to underſtand it. Their expoſition of what they mean, viz. " The *Continent*, *Iſlands*, and *Seas*, which, by *diſco-* " *covery*, by *treaties*, and by *immemorial poſſeſſion*, have, and do belong to " them, with the concurrence and conſent of all nations," leaves the matter in the ſame obſcurity. Without entering into the claim of diſcovery, no nation at peace with Spain, can reaſonably diſpute " *what* they have by treaty and im-

" memorial

Let us proceed, then, to a queſtion of vaſt importance, and in the ſolution of which, Sir, your character, and the intereſt of the people of England, are deeply concerned. That we ſhould be on the eve of a war with Spain, in conſequence of a groſs injury ſhe is ſuppoſed to have done to us, is not ſurpriſing—that we ſhould be forced to ſettle with them by arms, thoſe claims that we have often diſputed about before in words, is not wonderful. Such a war has a natural, and perhaps an adequate cauſe. The people of England would have engaged in it with cheerfulneſs, and there is the higheſt probability that it would have been the ſhorteſt and moſt ſucceſsful one in which they were ever embarked.

" memorial poſſeſſion, with the concurrence and aſſent of all nations:" but *what* they *have* by treaty, and by immemorial poſſeſſion, with the concurrence and aſſent of all nations, is a *queſtion* of *great extent!*

" It is ſaid, that Spain having *no fixed eſtabliſhments* on any coaſt, port, or bay, is *no proof* that it is not *theirs*. It, at leaſt, is certainly *no proof*, even preſumptive, that *it is!* But the inference drawn by the Memorial does not follow, " that the conſequence of the former aſſumption would entitle any nation " whatever to ſettle in the *dominions* of another nation, in America, Aſia, or " even in Europe, where there are no fixed eſtabliſhments."

" In *Europe*, every ſpot of land is the particular property of ſome individual, ſubject to the laws of the country, and protected in the property by the State; and therefore, every ſpot is appropriated to a *fixed eſtabliſhment*, which does not imply, or require, a fortification or place of arms. In America, and Aſia, there are many places in actual and individual poſſeſſion of the ſubjects of European States, over whom theſe States exerciſe juriſdiction: but, without *juriſdictive authority*, there can be *no rightful dominion!* And therefore ſuch places in America or Aſia as are inhabited by *Aborigines*, who do not acknowledge the juriſdiction of any European power, muſt be free to whatever friendly intercourſe they may be inclined to admit, without the breach of any ſubſiſting treaty, or the law of nations: not to mention, that the conduct of Spain, and other powers, in the conteſt between Great-Britain and her American Colonies, has decided, as far as ſuch conduct could decide, that whenever ſubjects, having taken up arms, *avow*, and *are able* to *maintain* their *independence*, that then their *actual independence* is to be acknowledged by *all nations!*

But, how comes it, Sir, that we are likely to be engaged in a war with France, at the ſame time as with Spain? With France we had no quarrel—nor from her had received any injury. How has it happened, that after ſhaking off the yoke of deſpotiſm, and ſweeping away all the rubbiſh of the ancient ſyſtem, ſhe has found herſelf obliged to retain a treaty, formed between two deſpots, without the conſent of their people, and calculated ſolely or chiefly to promote their ambitious views, at the expence of their ſubjects? Is it poſſible to conceive, that France ſhould deſire to embark in a foreign war, at the moment when ſhe is involved in the criſis and anarchy of a revolution?—Can ſhe deſire to engage in vaſt expenſive preparations, when her finances are in diſorder?—Can ſhe ſeek to combat with a great and powerful enemy, at the moment when her own exiſtence is at ſtake? There is a myſtery here, which it is moſt important to unriddle. Some *ſad neceſſity* muſt urge our brethren in France, to the conduct they are now about to purſue. Every principle ſhould lead them now to ſhake off bigoted and deſpotic Spain, and to form a connection with England, free and enlightened like themſelves. Why do they not do ſo? This is what the following narration may perhaps unfold to us.

M. Riquetti ſen. formerly the Count de Mirabeau, was appointed to make the report of the Diplomatic Committee, on the demand of the Court of Spain, for the fulfilment of the Family Compact; and on the 25th of Auguſt, he delivered the following ſpeech to the National Aſſembly:

" *Gentlemen*,

" YOU have deſired your *Diplomatic Committee* *, to give you " their advice reſpecting the demand of the Court of Spain.

" The

* The method of preparing buſineſs by Committees, adopted from our Houſe of Commons, has been carried farther than ever we did, by the French Legiſlators. The objects indeed that intereſted them, have been of much greater number

" The defire and the *need* of peace, the confident hope that it will " not be interrupted, and the principles of the new conſtitution, " have been our ſole guides in examining this important queſtion. " In order to reſolve it juſtly, we have thought ourſelves bound " to conſider the preſent ſtate of public affairs, and our connec- " tions with the different powers of Europe. We have felt the " neceſſity of diſtinguiſhing the ſyſtem hitherto embraced by the " French Court, from that plan which ſuits the new order of " things. It was not enough to know our duty and our intereſt— " it was neceſſary at the ſame time to reconcile theſe with prudence: " it was neceſſary to diſcover the beſt means of avoiding, without " meanneſs, the ſcourge of war; and it was above all things urgent, " to guard from that evil, the cradle of the Conſtitution, around " which, and before deciding on the aſſiſtance we owe to allies, " all the public power of the State, or rather all the citizens of " the Empire, ought to form an impenetrable barrier.—If we had " nothing to conſider but the *object* of the conteſt between the " Courts of London and Madrid, we could not ſuppoſe that peace

ber and magnitude than thoſe which have generally occupied our attention; and as they have ſubmitted to the wiſdom of the nation, many queſtions, in which we have been contented to be dictated to by Kings and Prieſts, they have of courſe had a greater variety of matter to attend to than ever came before us. They have their Committees of *Finances*, of *Penſions*, of *Coinage*, of *Taxes*, of the *Conſtitution*, of the *Colonies*, *Eccleſiaſtical*, *Diplomatic*, *Military*, of *Alienation of the Clerical Poſſeſſions*—of *drying Marſhes*—of *Agriculture*—of *Commerce*—of *Beggary*—and one that, though laſt formed, is far from being leaſt in utility, a *Central* Committee, whoſe duty is to ſettle the order of the buſineſs that comes before the aſſembly—to fix the order of the day, and be a guardian of order and regularity in the Society.

The buſineſs of each of theſe Committees is, to make itſelf maſter of that particular branch of public affairs to which its attention is peculiarly directed—to be ready to anſwer all queſtions that regard it—and to make a report on every matter of moment connected with it, that is laid before the Aſſembly. And as theſe reports are uſually, by the order of the Aſſembly, printed at large in the *procès-verbaux*, they form a curious and inſtructive ſeries of Eſſays on the moſt intereſting ſubjects in politics and morals, and furniſh ideas and remarks on many things that have not before been treated of by any writer.

" would be interrupted. The territory which theſe two powers " are diſputing, belongs neither to the one nor to the other: it " is incontrovertibly the property of the independent inhabitants " whom Nature has produced there. This line of demarcation " is of much more authority than that which the Pope has traced " out; and the people of that country, if they be oppreſſed, are " alſo *our allies!* We will not do ſo much injuſtice to two en- " lightened nations, as to ſuppoſe that they would throw away " their treaſure and their blood, for an acquiſition ſo remote, or " for riches ſo precarious. The impartiality which has guided " our judgment, will always recal to us theſe ſimple truths, when- " ever there is need of them; but this firſt point of view does " not decide the queſtion."

In theſe paragraphs we have much eloquence, and much truth, intermixed perhaps with ſome errors, or rather with ſome haſty deciſions, which a more careful inveſtigation of facts may modify, if not entirely change.

1. It is ſuppoſed, that if the two nations in queſtion were truly wiſe, there could be no interruption of peace between them on the preſent occaſion; becauſe the object of conteſt is not worth diſputing about. This leads to a direct enquiry into the poſſible importance of the new ſettlement at Nootka Sound.

In what quantity are the furs there procurable?

Are they ſure of always commanding a *preference* at the Chineſe market?

Will not the greater ſupply of them diminiſh the price there?

Can they be ſent to Japan, or to any other market?

Could not the Spaniards, or any other power, rival us in the trade, from ſettlements already formed, or to be formed in future?

Are

Are there any other articles of commerce which that country can furniſh?

Of what nature and value are the mines which Mr. Mears found there?

Is the commerce, on the whole, of importance enough to balance the great expence and danger of ſuch diſtant enterprizes?

What importance does Nootka Sound derive, from its being conſidered as the completion of a chain of poſts or harbours for our ſhipping in the South Seas, beginning at Staten land, near Terra del Fuego, and advancing by the Society and Sandwich iſlands to Nootka?

What importance would Nootka Sound acquire, if Mr. Mears's conjecture proves true, that the inland ſea, into which one of his ſhips ſailed up a long way in the direction of Hudſon's houſe, unites farther on with ſome navigable rivers, and ſo, by joining Hudſon's Bay, opens the great deſideratum of a North-weſt paſſage?

What importance does Nootka Sound derive from the idea, that now, or at ſome future period, we may poſſibly interfere to ſet free the ancient and oppreſſed kingdoms of Mexico and Peru, and ſhould then require to have a ſettlement in theſe parts?

Theſe queries muſt all be anſwered, before we can conclude that the object of conteſt between Spain and England is of no importance. It is my manner to collect *facts*, before pronouncing *deciſions*. I ſhall only add, that if in any caſe I permitted myſelf to decide without an accurate knowledge of facts, I would here lean to the ſide of M. Riquetti. For I doubt much the value of this remote ſettlement. I doubt whether Nature ever meant commerce to extend ſo far. A great portion of human life is waſted in going and returning from this diſtant country—children are loſt

loſt to their parents, the huſband to his wife; and all men impreſſed with the ideas of the ſhortneſs of human life, and of the vaſt portion of time they have ſpent on ſuch an enterpriſe, will, at their arrival there, be tempted, as they have been in India, to recompenſe themſelves, by accumulating a rapid fortune; from the deſire of which reſults the oppreſſion of the natives at that place, the defrauding of their employers at home, and in ſhort, every kind of unprincipled and criminal conduct.

But with reſpect to you, Sir, as the Miniſter of a commercial country, the matter was to be viewed in a different point of light. The magnitude, or littleneſs of the object, was by no means the only point to govern your conduct. You acted highly right in demanding from the Court of Spain, ſatisfaction for the affront to our flag, and for the injury to our commerce. If the Spaniards had taken from us by force a *ſingle boat*, and refuſed to reſtore it, that would have been a ſufficient reaſon for an appeal to arms. For it is not the *magnitude*, but the *nature* of an injury, that conſtitutes its malignity. If it be true, that he that is unjuſt in the leaſt, will alſo, when opportunity allows, be unjuſt in the greateſt; it is no leſs true, that thoſe nations who bear *patiently* the ſmalleſt injuſtice, will ſoon be expoſed to the greateſt.

This is the firſt view of things; and in this part of your conduct, S. SEARCH holds you fully juſtified.—We come now to the ſecond ſtage of the buſineſs. The Spaniards have agreed to reſtore the ſhips, and to make ſatisfaction for the injury. Here then I aſk,

1. Since we are now at variance with them, is it not a proper time to ſettle old accounts? Is there any previous agreement to us, which they have not fulfilled? Ought we not now to demand payment of the balance of the Manilla ranſom?

2. Will they agree to pay, not only the actual loſſes which Mr. Mears and his friends have undergone, but the probable loſſes on the voyages of ſhips which they captured or detained; and will they

they alſo make an indemnification for the deſtruction of our ſettlement, the interruption of our commerce, and the injurious treatment of our people, and the free Chineſe? This laſt part of the demand may be of great conſequence. The Emperor of China will be informed of the fate of his people, and he is as able as he is willing to reſent it on thoſe Engliſh who viſit his dominions.

3. Suppoſing they agree to all this, what ſecurity have you that they will perform their promiſe? Will you leave it as your predeceſſors did—to chance, and the next adminiſtration? Will you thus triſle with the people of England; or, do they continue yet capable of admitting ſuch trifling, from you, or any miniſter?

4. What is to become of the millions you have ſpent of the nation's money in preparing armaments? If Spain was the aggreſſor, and in the wrong, ſhe ought to pay the coſt of theſe armaments—If otherwiſe, you are in the wrong, and your conduct is unjuſtifiable. If the armaments were neceſſary, let thoſe pay them who rendered them ſo—If they were unneceſſary, let the cauſe of the miſtake be traced out, and the defaulters ſuffer. You know the ſtate of our finances. You know that the people are overloaded with taxes. You will ſee how all your plans of paying off the public debt are interrupted, and rendered void. At length perhaps, when all the ſavings you have made are ſwallowed up, the people of England may be convinced, that you have not yet adopted a great or adequate remedy, but are merely putting off the evil day, and trifling with the great and increaſing evil of the national debt.

I have only to obſerve farther, that when M. Riquetti advances, that neither Spain nor England have any right to the poſſeſſion of territory at Nootka Sound, he probably was not acquainted with the plea of Mr. Mears, who declares, as we have already ſeen, that he ſeized on nothing there by violence, nor ſought any extenſive territorial poſſeſſion, but only as much ground as was requiſite for a commercial eſtabliſhment; and this

he purchaſed by a fair exchange of commodities, from the chiefs of the country.

Whatever there may be in this, I moſt heartily admire the heroic ſentiment of our orator. "Theſe people alſo, *if they be op-*"*preſſed*, are our ALLIES."

But, to proceed—"If, on the other hand, we ought to be deter-"mined ſolely by the neceſſity which our preſent circumſtances "impoſe on us, not only of avoiding war, but alſo the formida-"ble preparations for it; can we conceal from you the ſtate of "our finances, not yet *regenerated*, or of our army and navy, "not yet *organized?* Can we conceal from you, that amongſt "the innumerable evils, even of an unjuſt war, the greateſt to "us would be, the turning away the attention of the citizens "from the conſtitution—the diſtracting them from the only ob-"ject which ought to engroſs all their wiſhes and hopes—the di-"viding the courſe of that *public opinion*, whoſe whole force is "ſcarce ſufficient to bear down the obſtacles that ſtill remain to "be ſurmounted?—But neither the misfortunes of war, nor the "inconveniences reſulting from our preſent ſituation, are ſufficient to decide the queſtion of ALLIANCES.

"Finally—If we ought to conduct ourſelves at preſent accord-"ing to what we ſhall one day be—if, bounding over the interval "which ſeparates Europe from the deſtiny that awaits her, we "could give, at this moment, the ſignal of that UNIVERSAL BE-"NEVOLENCE which the recovery of the rights of man is pre-"paring for the world—we ſhould have no occaſion to deliberate "either about alliances or war. Will Europe have any need of "a *ſcience of politics*, when ſhe has neither *deſpots*, nor *ſlaves?* "Will France want *allies*, when ſhe has no *enemies?* That period "perhaps is not far from us, when liberty, reigning unrivalled "over the two worlds, will realize the wiſhes of philoſophy—will "abſolve the human race from the crime of war, and proclaim "every where PEACE: then the happineſs of the people will be the "only

" only object of legiſlators, the only ſource of energy to the laws,
" the ſole glory of nations: then private paſſions, transformed
" into public virtues, will no longer tear aſunder, by bloody con-
" teſts, the ties of that brotherhood, which ought to unite all
" governments and all men—then will be conſummated the FE-
" DERAL AGREEMENT OF THE HUMAN RACE!"

Here let us pauſe a moment, to contemplate the ſublime language of our orator, and to ſee how naturally great ideas produce ſuitable words to expreſs them. Mr. Harris, ſpeaking of the Greek States while they retained their freedom, obſerves juſtly, " that where matter ſo much abounded, words followed " of courſe," and theſe the moſt perfect of their kind. Upon reading theſe paſſages, we may exclaim with truth, what often has been exclaimed from ſervile flattery:

" Cedite Romani Scriptores, cedite Graii!"

A greater than Demoſthenes is here, in as much as his ſubject is more exalted than was that of Demoſthenes. For what were his *Athenians*, or, taking a wider range, his *Greeks?*—What was that partial heroiſm—that narrow patriotiſm, which elevated one country, and one people, to a ſyſtem that conſiders kingdoms as only larger families, diſtant nations as different cities, and all mankind as brethren?

While we admire theſe generous and extenſive ſentiments of the French Legiſlator, let us alſo recollect, for the honour of Religion and of Chriſtianity, that it is to them we owe their origin. Jeſus firſt taught ſuch ſentiments to his wondering auditors. Before him, the human race was divided into innumerable *factions;* and each faction repreſented it as the firſt of virtues, to ſupport its own party, and to ruin all others whom it diſtinguiſhed in general by the name of its *enemies*. In ſome languages, a *ſtranger*, and an *enemy*, were denoted by the ſame word.

Thus the Roman *Hoſtis* originally ſignified a *foreigner;* and, by a change of the laſt letter only, it denoted a *victim*, becauſe every enemy was doomed to deſtruction. Even the poliſhed Greeks repreſented the reſt of mankind as all *barbarians*, and conſidered them as entitled to little more reſpect than brute animals. The famed laws of ancient legiſlators were little elſe than artful ſyſtems of ambition and injuſtice, to promote the grandeur (not the *happineſs)* of one people, at the expence of all others. It was not till the coming of Jeſus Chriſt, that a ſyſtem comprehending the whole human race was diſcloſed; and this circumſtance, more than a thouſand arguments, proves this excellent perſon to have been truly the Ambaſſador of the great *Parent* of mankind, to whom all his children are equally dear.

When our author demands, "Will Europe have any need of "a ſcience of politics, when ſhe has neither deſpots nor ſlaves?" A thinking mind can ſcarce help reflecting, how much of human ſcience is intrinſically uſeleſs, and poſſeſſes no other value than what it derives from the folly and weakneſs of mankind.

"Much learning ſhews how much need not be known."

With what contempt does a mind elevated by theſe great ideas, look down upon the myſteries of cabinets, and the ſecrets of politicians, concealed with ſuch anxious care! *Difficiles nugæ!* Pompous trifles! which ſo much intereſt little minds, or minds apparently wiſe; but whoſe wiſdom, in the eyes of God and Reaſon, is real folly. When mankind become *truly wiſe*, they will ſay with *St. Auguſtin*, *Quam ſuave nunc eſt nobis carere ſuavitatibus vugarum?*

How affecting is it, after contemplating theſe noble ideas, to find that as yet they only exiſt in theory, and have never been carried into practice! For our author, wiſe as well as eloquent, continues thus: "But, let us own it with regret—theſe conſidera-"tions, powerful as they are, are not the only ones which at

" this juncture muſt determine our conduct. The French nation,
" when changing its laws and manners, ought doubtleſs to
" change its politics; but the errors which prevail in Europe,
" condemn it ſtill to follow partially an ancient ſyſtem, which it
" could not ſuddenly deſtroy without danger. Wiſdom requires
" of us, not to remove any of the foundations of the public ſe-
" curity, without having ſubſtituted ſomething in its place.
" Who is there I pray that does not know, that in external,
" as well as internal politics, every intermediate time is attended
" with danger? The interregnum of princes is the epoch of
" troubles; the interregnum of the laws is the reign of anarchy;
" and, if I may expreſs myſelf ſo, the interregnum of treaties
" may produce a criſis dangerous to the national proſperity.
" Sooner or later the irreſiſtible influence of twenty-four millions
" of men, ſpeaking the ſame language, and bringing back the
" ſocial art to theſe ſimple principles of liberty and juſtice, which
" poſſeſs an irreſiſtible charm for the human mind, will find, in
" every country of the world, miſſionaries and proſelytes. The
" influence of ſuch a nation will doubtleſs ſubdue all Europe,
" to truth, to moderation, and to juſtice;—but not all at once,
" not in one day, not in the ſame inſtant. Too many prejudices
" ſtill hold mortals in chains: paſſion leads them too much aſtray
" —too many tyrants hold them in ſubjection.—Even our geo-
" graphical ſituation does not permit us to inſulate ourſelves.—
" Do not our diſtant poſſeſſions, ſcattered about in both hemi-
" ſpheres, expoſe us to attacks, which, if alone, we cannot repulſe
" in all quarters of the world. And ſince, for want of inſtruction,
" all nations do not believe that they have the ſame political in-
" tereſt, that of *peace* and of mutual and reciprocal benefits, is it not
" neceſſary to oppoſe the paſſions of ſome, the reſtleſſneſs of
" others, and at leaſt to reſtrain, by a formidable countenance,
" thoſe who would be tempted to abuſe our diſturbances, and their
" own proſperity?

" Whilſt we ſhall have rivals, prudence will command us to
" place out of all danger, that private property which conſtitutes
" the

" the national fortune ; to watch over foreign ambition, ſince we " muſt ſtill ſpeak of ambition ; and to regulate our public force, " in proportion to that which may threaten our dominions. *So* " *long as our neighbours ſhall not adopt completely our principles*, " we ſhall be forced, even in purſuing a more generous policy, " not to neglect thoſe precautions which prudence demands. " If our ambaſſadors have no more to plead the cauſe of our paſ- " ſions, they will have to defend that of our reaſon, and they " ought to be more able in the one than the other.

" It is but too true, that the nation, which wiſhes at all hazards " to preſerve peace, undertakes a more difficult taſk, by offering " ſpoils to cupidity, and conqueſts to glory, than even that which " ambition inſpires.—Such, Gentlemen, are the moſt important re- " flections which have ſtruck your Committee; they have conducted " us at firſt to two principles, which we have adopted, and which I " ought to lay before you, before entering into larger details on " the particular buſineſs of Spain.

" Theſe two principles are, *firſt*, That all treaties previouſly con- " cluded by the King of the French, ought to be obſerved by the " French nation, until they have been annulled, altered, or modi- " fied, in conſequence of an inveſtigation which ſhall be made for " this purpoſe by the Aſſembly and its Committees, and accord- " ing to the inſtructions which the King ſhall be entreated to give " to his agents at the different courts of Europe.

" *Secondly*, That from this moment the King ought to be en- " treated to make known to all the powers with whom we have any " connections, that the unalterable deſire of peace, and the renun- " ciation of all conqueſts, being the baſis of our conduct, the French " nation, in all theſe treaties, conſiders the clauſes purely defenſive, " as the only ones now exiſting and obligatory.—Theſe two prin- " ciples appeared to us perfectly conformable to the ſpirit of our " Conſtitution ; and it ſeems ſo much the more important to " decree them, as on the one hand, they will be ſufficient, in caſe of

" need,

" need, to give encouragement to our allies; and on the other, they " will leave no doubt of our love of peace, our deſire to ſee the " torches of war extinguiſhed for ever, and our intention never to " take arms, but to repel unjuſt oppreſſors. 'Tis not enough that the " ambition which ſeeks inceſſantly to aggrandiſe itſelf, that the po- " litics which wiſh to confound every thing, be henceforth unknown " to us—we muſt alſo inform all nations, that if, in order to ſtifle " for ever the ſeeds of war, it were neceſſary to give up all exter- " nal force, to deſtroy our fortreſſes, to diſſolve our army, and burn " our fleets, that we would be the firſt to give an example of it.— " Theſe two principles, which I have juſt mentioned, point out al- " ready the anſwer which it ſeems to us the King ought to make " to the Court of Spain: But your Committee will enter into ſome " details—we have examined our alliance with Spain under various " relations—the epocha of that engagement, its utility, its form, " our faculties, the preſent diſpoſition of the Spaniards, and the " apparent views of the Engliſh.

" Liſten then to the reſult of our reſearches. The Spaniards " were long our enemies. After more than an age of combats, the " peace of the Pyrenees at laſt diſarmed the formidable hands of " two people, equally warlike and fierce, who ruined and tore each " other to pieces, for the pride of a few perſons, and at the ex- " pence of two nations. The tranquillity of Europe was ſhort. " The paſſions of princes do not ſleep long. Louis XIV. united " in his family the ſceptres of France and Spain. This union, and " the ambitious views which it perhaps concealed, rouſed all other " powers againſt us; and if fortune favoured but the half of their " vindictive projects, if we ſunk not down under ſo many blows " aimed at us at once, we could not however avoid that exhauſt- " ment of ſtrength, that internal deſtruction, which is the conſe- " quence of a long war. It was ſoon apparent, that that ſucceſſion " which had coſt ſo much blood, did not inſure the repoſe of the " two nations. The two Kings were relations; but their people " were not united—their miniſters were rivals—and England, taking

" advantage

" advantage of their diviſions to weaken them, ſeized with impunity " the ſceptre of the ocean, and the commerce of the world.

" At length, after that fatal war, which coſt France her ſhips, her " treaſures, and her fineſt colonies, our misfortunes furniſhed Spain " a glorious opportunity of diſplaying that character, which ſince " then ſhe has never ceaſed to poſſeſs. This generous people, whoſe " good faith is remarkable even to a proverb, recognized us as their " friends, when they ſaw us ready to fall. They came in to bear " a ſhare of our misfortunes—to renew our hopes—to weaken our " rivals; and their miniſters ſigned in 1761, a treaty of alliance with " us, over the broken fragments of our arms, the ruin of our credit, " and the wreck of our navy. What was the fruit of that union? " Sixteen years of peace and of tranquillity, which would not yet " have experienced an interruption, if England had reſpected in her " colonies thoſe ſacred principles which ſhe adores at home, and " if the French, protectors of the liberty of others, before having " gained it for themſelves, had not *obliged* their King to fight, to " defend the Americans *.

" This quarrel was altogether foreign to Spain, and might even " have occaſioned her ſome alarms reſpecting her colonies, and com- " promiſed in appearance her deareſt intereſts. But England had " firſt violated the laws of peace; and Spain, faithful to her engage- " ment, flew to arms, and gave up to us—her fleets, her trea- " ſures, and her army. It is in conjunction with her, that we ac- " quired the immortal honour of reſtoring liberty to ſo great a por- " tion of the human race.

* This is a fact as little underſtood in England, as the French affairs in general are. We imagine, that the French *Court* interfered in the American war, in order to humble Britain, by detaching her colonies: whereas the caſe was, the American cauſe was firſt taken up by the *People* in France. They, and all Europe with them, thought that we were oppreſſing and tyrannizing over the Americans; and M. de la Fayette, and others who were volunteers in their ſervice, induced the Court, with *conſiderable difficulty*, to patronize them.

" Since

"Since the memorable peace which crowned our efforts, war ap-
"peared again ready to burſt forth between France and England.
"As ſoon as the King of the French had given notice to his ally
"that he was arming, the ports of Spain were filled with formida-
"ble fleets. She wanted only a hint to fly to our aſſiſtance, and
"England agreed with us to diſarm.—But let us caſt a veil over
"that ſhameful epoch, when the ignorance of our miniſter robbed
"us of an ally, whom we had procured by our benevolence, whom
"we had ſufficiently protected, by only ſhewing ourſelves ready to
"defend her; and thus deprived us of an almoſt infallible mean of
"being henceforth the ARBITERS of PEACE in Europe. When we
"recollected this conduct of Spain, and the ſervices ſhe has rendered
"to us, we could not help aſking ourſelves, if France ſhould break
"a treaty generouſly concluded, frequently uſeful, and religiouſly
"obſerved? More eſpecially did we demand of ourſelves, if it was
"proper to annul ſo ſolemn an engagement, at the moment when
"Spain would be preſſed by the ſame dangers, *from which ſhe had*
"*three times delivered us?*

"We ſhould have nothing to add for thoſe who may fear, that
"one of the nations would obtain a ſuperiority over the other in ge-
"neroſity; but our intereſt dictates to us other laws than thoſe of
"gratitude. Some men of bold character, and proud of their coun-
"try, believe that France in arms may remain invincible, although
"*unconnected*. Such men are now amongſt us; and this opinion is
"ſo much the more honourable, as it blends the public force with
"the energy of liberty. But public liberty will not become the
"greateſt force of empires, until the nations of Europe, ſtrangers
"to all injuſtice and all conqueſts, ſhall apply themſelves ſolely to
"the cultivation of their internal treaſures, and to their true proſ-
"perity. The annals of France record triumphs, which excite to
"vengeance and retaliation. She has colonies, which ſtimu-
"late ambition; commerce, which awakens covetouſneſs; and
"if ſhe ſhall be able one day to defend herſelf without allies,
"which I believe as ſtrongly as any other can do, it does not
"follow that ſhe ought *at preſent* to expoſe herſelf to a ſolitary ſtrug-
"gle, with powers whoſe ſtrength is ſuperior to her own. We

" do not ſpeak now of what *neceſſity* may demand, but of what " *prudence* requires. It is not our buſineſs at preſent to make a " dangerous exhibition of our laſt reſources, but to take the moſt " proper ſteps to inſure peace.

" We do not conſider any people as our enemy. For us enemies " exiſt no more, not even that nation which an inſidious policy has " hitherto repreſented as our rival—whoſe ſteps we have followed— " whoſe great example has aſſiſted us in obtaining our liberty—and " with whom ſo many new ties now occur to connect us. Another " kind of rivalſhip, the emulation of excelling each other in good " laws and government, is about to take place of that which was " nouriſhed by politics and ambition. Do not ſuppoſe, I beſeech " you, that a free and enlightened people can wiſh to profit of our " temporary troubles, to renew unjuſtly the miſeries of war, to at- " tack our infant liberty, and ſtifle the bud of theſe principles " which they themſelves tranſmitted to us. It would be a ſacrilege " in her to attempt it—it is ſacrilegious in us to make the ſuppo- " ſition. Does not the ſame political morality at this moment in- " fluence Great Britain and France? Are not deſpotiſm and its " agents our common enemies? Will not the Engliſh be more ſure " to retain their freedom, when they have the French free, as their " auxiliaries?—But while we render homage to the philoſophy of " that people, our elder brethren in liberty, let us liſten alſo to the " counſels of prudence.

" A politician ought to reaſon even upon ſuppoſitions, which he " does not believe; and the happineſs of a people is worth the trou- " ble of guarding againſt the moſt unlikely, as well as the moſt pro- " bable events, in order to maintain it. Suppoſe then that Eng- " land foreſees, with ſecret diſquiet, the acquiſition which a free " conſtitution will one day give to our ſtrength, to our commerce, " to our credit—that ſhe reads in her own hiſtory, our future deſ- " tiny—and that, induced by a falſe policy, ſhe wiſhes to profit " from circumſtances, to deſtroy a formidable alliance, of which " ſhe has often felt all the force. What are the meaſures which

" ſuch

"ſuch a ſuppoſition ought to induce us to take? We cannot ba-
"lance the number of Engliſh ſhips, without thoſe of our ally—
"Our intereſt then obliges us to confirm our alliance with Spain;
"and the only method to do it is, faithfully to fulfil our engage-
"ments. It will perhaps be ſaid, that this fidelity may be the very
"cauſe of hurrying us rapidly into war—of ſtopping our revolution
"—exhauſting our finances, and annihilating our army. But what
"ſhall we reply to that dilemma? Either England wiſhes for war,
"or ſhe does not. If ſhe does not wiſh for it, if ſhe arms only in
"order to negociate with more ſucceſs, ſhe cannot regard our con-
"duct as any provocation, and you will fulfil your engagements
"without endangering your tranquillity. If, on the other hand,
"England wiſhes for war, you muſt no longer count upon her
"juſtice, or her generoſity—your inactivity would increaſe your
"dangers, in place of delivering you from them. If Spain be over-
"whelmed, ſhall not we ſoon become the object of the ſame ambi-
"tion, and be expoſed to a ſtill fiercer vengeance? Will not then
"the ſame misfortunes which we dread as the conſequence of
"maintaining an alliance, threaten our finances and our armies,
"and bring with them many other evils impoſſible even to be fore-
"ſeen?

"The nation which has choſen us as its legiſlators, demands from
"us alſo the ſecurity of its poſſeſſions and its commerce. Heſita-
"tion would probably weaken the public ſpirit, and undoubtedly
"diminiſh the reſpect due to your deciſions—the hazard would ſeem
"to cenſure our want of foreſight—an exceſſive confidence, while it
"juſtified your generoſity, would compromiſe your wiſdom. There
"would be room to fear that ſome of our beſt citizens, whoſe for-
"tune would be affected by the firſt ſhock of an unexpected war,
"would be irritated by that circumſtance—that the regret at hav-
"ing loſt an ancient ally, would mix itſelf with the ſenſation of
"other accumulated loſſes; and finally, that we ſhould be re-
"proached, ſince it was neceſſary to decide between chances equally
"uncertain, with not having preferred that, which, if it expoſes us

" to equal dangers, furniſhes however at the ſame time, the " means of ſurmounting them.

" It will be ſaid perhaps, that Spain, aſſured of our aſſiſtance, " will become more difficult in her negociation for peace, whilſt by " refuſing to interfere in the quarrel, the accommodation that we " deſire, will experience no delay nor difficulty.

" We have already precluded that objection: the principles which " we propoſe to you to decree, will leave no doubt to Great Britain " of our intentions, and will make it evident to Spain, that our " Conſtitution regards as obligatory, only *defenſive* engagements. " Our conduct therefore will be marked by no hoſtile ſtep, which a " juſt defence would not render neceſſary. It will only run counter " to the Engliſh in as far as they would become *aggreſſors*. Be- " ſides, were it certain that abandoning our engagements would " force Spain to negociate more ſpeedily a peace with England, " it is but too obvious to foreſee what in that caſe would be the " nature of ſuch an accommodation, and the irreparable injury a " negociation of this ſort would occaſion to our credit and com- " merce.

" It is not the Family Compact *in toto*, that we propoſe to you " to ratify, concluded as it was at a time when kings alone " ſpoke in the name of the people, as if the countries they go- " verned had been their patrimony, or that the will of the mo- " narch ſhould decide their fate. This treaty bears the ſingular " name of the *Family Compact*; but every decree that we have paſſed " announces to all Europe, that henceforward we only recognize " the *compacts of the nation*. Contrived by a French Miniſter, " who ardently aſpired to repair the humiliations of an unfortunate " war, it contains ſeveral articles calculated to bind Spain to his " views, and to oblige her to render us aſſiſtance, even when we " were the aggreſſors. But now, ſince we renounce the fulfilling " of ſuch engagements with others, we cannot claim their obſer- " vance for ourſelves.

" Some

" Some of the articles ought to be ratified; ſuch are, thoſe re-
" lative to the reciprocal guaranty of poſſeſſions, to the mutual
" ſuccours the two nations are to furniſh one another, and to the
" advantages in trade which they eſtabliſh. Some require expla-
" nation; for you cannot permit even the appearance of thoſe
" *offenſive* clauſes, which you have been the firſt in Europe to
" abjure.

" The ſole meaſure on this ſubject propoſed to you by your
" Committee, ſuppoſing you to adopt at this moment the plan
" of the decree they are about to ſubmit to you, is, that you
" ſhould give them in charge to examine in detail the articles of
" the Family Compact, in order to enable you to ſtrengthen our
" connection with Spain, by making of that treaty a national
" compact, by ſuppreſſing the uſeleſs and offenſive ſtipulations,
" and petitioning the King to direct his miniſter to negociate with
" Spain a renovation of the treaty, upon thoſe grounds you ſhall
" have approved of. Here the intereſt of Spain will combine with
" your own. What is the compact of one cabinet with another?
" A miniſter makes it—a miniſter may deſtroy it. Ambition gives
" it birth; rivalſhip may annihilate it. Often is it dictated by
" the perſonal intereſt of the Monarch alone, while the nation, its
" ſole guarantee, takes no part in it. Such would not be the
" caſe with a compact truly national, which ſhould bind as it
" were by an oath, two countries to each other, and which would
" at once unite grand intereſts and powerful efforts. 'Tis this
" compact which alone bends every individual to the general will,
" produces an indiſſoluble alliance, and is founded upon the firm
" baſis of public faith.

" Such is the reſult of the labours of your Committee. It in-
" cludes three points diſtinct from each other; but, as you per-
" ceive, not to be ſeparated. The analyſis of the two principles
" which are to form the foundation of your political ſyſtem—
" a deciſion which preſerves an uſeful alliance, by aſſuring to the
" King of Spain that we will fulfil our engagements,—and the

" demand of a decree, to charge your Committee with thoſe " modifications of the treaty, which may be requiſite on its re- " newal. But this determination, ſhould you adopt it, neceſſa- " rily indicates other meaſures. The maintenance of our alliance " with Spain would be fallacious, if in the midſt of peace, and " in reſtraining ourſelves to give to thoſe negociations, which are " to aſſure the repoſe of Europe, all the weight of our influence, " we ſhould not augment our armaments in the ſame proportion " as our neighbours. It is not when a nation has remote poſſeſ- " ſions, it is not when ſhe believes herſelf poſſeſſed of great riches " at a great diſtance, that ſhe can reſolve to take up arms only " at the moment of her being attacked. Commerce requires pro- " tection, not only from real dangers, but from the fear of them; " and never was it ſo important as at preſent, to render our co- " lonies ſenſible that they will be protected. Such are the evils " produced by that execrable diſtruſt, which puts neighbouring " countries upon watching over, dreading, and conſidering each " other as enemies. Why ſhould the very neceſſity of aſſuring " peace, force nations to ruin themſelves in preparations of de- " fence? May this horrid policy ſoon become an object of de- " teſtation over the whole earth!

" With a view to combine the different objects detailed in their " report, your Committee propoſe to you the following decree, " as the moſt proper way to fulfil your engagements without im- " prudence, to change the ancient ſyſtem without violent ſhocks, " and to avoid a war without weakneſs.

" The National Aſſembly decrees:

" 1. That all treaties heretofore entered into, ſhall continue " to be reſpected by the French nation, until the moment when " theſe different acts ſhall be reviewed or modified, in conſe- " quence of the inveſtigation for this purpoſe, and of the inſtruc- " tions which the King ſhall be petitioned to give to his miniſters " at the different courts of Europe.

" 2. That,

" 2. That, previouſly to this inveſtigation and profound examin-
" ation of thoſe treaties which the nation ſhall deem neceſſary to
" preſerve or change, the King ſhall be petitioned to appriſe all
" the powers with whom France has engagements, that juſtice
" and the love of peace, being the baſis of the French Conſtitution,
" the nation cannot in any caſe recognize in her treaties, any
" other ſtipulations, but ſuch as are purely defenſive and com-
" mercial.

" Decrees, in conſequence, that the King ſhall be petitioned
" to make known to his Catholic Majeſty, that the French na-
" tion, in taking all the meaſures proper to maintain peace,
" will obſerve all the engagements their government have con-
" tracted with Spain.

" Decrees further, that the King ſhall be petitioned to charge
" his Ambaſſador in Spain, to negociate with the miniſters of
" his Catholic Majeſty, in order to ſtrengthen, by a national bond,
" the ties uſeful to both nations; and to fix with preciſion and
" clearneſs, every ſtipulation which ſhall not be entirely con-
" formable to the views of general peace, and to *the principles of*
" *juſtice, which will for ever be the policy of the French.*

" Moreover, the National Aſſembly, taking into conſideration
" the armaments of different nations in Europe, their progreſ-
" ſive increaſe, and the ſafety of our colonies and national
" commerce, decrees, that the King ſhall be petitioned to give
" orders, that our fleets in commiſſion ſhall be extended to thirty
" ſhips of the line, of which eight at leaſt ſhall be equipped in
" the ports of the Mediterranean."

Here M. Riquetti concluded his report; and a long diſcuſſion, as might be ſuppoſed, followed it. Waving the obſervations of a local nature, I ſhall confine myſelf to ſuch as were general, or immediately connected with the ſubject.

M. André

M. André—The proviſional decree of the Committee appears to me in the higheſt degree urgent and neceſſary. It does not confirm the treaties as now exiſting; but requeſts the King to render them *national*. I demand that the queſtion be put to the vote.

M. Begoin—The municipality of Havre have written a letter, informing me, that a captain of a ſhip had declared before them, that he had paſſed the Engliſh fleet, conſiſting of 31 ſail of the line, and many frigates. I have communicated this letter to the Miniſter, who has received ſimilar advices. I demand that the part of the decree relative to arming be immediately decided.

M. Freteau—Many municipalities in the ſea-port towns have taken into conſideration, the arming of the ſhips of the nation, *without waiting for your decrees*. Surely this conduct would have been blameable; but the idea formed of it, proves how neceſſary it is for you to take a decided ſtep immediately.

M. Robertſpierre—There are no circumſtances ſo urgent as to conſtrain an Aſſembly, that deliberates on the intereſt of a nation, to decide without having thoroughly weighed the matter ſubmitted to their deliberation. That now before us, is one of the moſt important which can ever occupy you. Have you well conſidered the conſequences of determining at once to ſupport all kinds of alliances—of confirming treaties unknown to the Aſſembly—treaties which have never been examined, nor conſented to by the nation?

M. L'Abbé Maury—I demand that the diſcuſſion remain open.

M. Riquetti—I intended to have made the ſame motion myſelf, becauſe the ſubject is as important as urgent. Decency forbids hurrying it through the Aſſembly. The diſcuſſion then may remain open, and be continued to-morrow.

M. L'Abbé

M. L'Abbé Maury—The propoſed decree conſiſts of two parts, eſſentially diſtinct—the one relative to the proviſional obſervation of treaties, and the armaments of 30 ſail of the line, which is urgent in the higheſt degree—the other reſpecting the examination and alteration of treaties, which is by no means of the ſame preſſing nature. If you blend the two, you will weaken the confidence of your ally; for Europe will learn at the ſame inſtant, that you reſolve to ſupport treaties, and to diſcuſs the articles of them.—There is one point which has yet eſcaped us. Why has not M. Montmorin demanded of the Engliſh, the reaſons of their armaments? They may indeed keep ſilence; but we ſhould interpret that ſilence. Our Ambaſſador has a right to demand officially an explanation from the Cabinet. I move therefore, that the Miniſter of foreign affairs be deſired to obtain all the information poſſible on the armaments—that the general articles I have recommended be decreed, and the others be adjourned to a future period.

M. Duchatelet—England and Spain have quarrelled—Spain continues her armaments—how can England give up her's? She has informed us of this; conſequently the ſpeech of *M. L'Abbé Maury* is not well founded—As for us however, we muſt indiſpenſibly arm. I move that the queſtion be decided at once, and the decree adopted.

Thurſday, 26th Auguſt.

M. Ricard—The greateſt care is neceſſary in our delicate ſituation. Both England and Spain are preparing powerful fleets. We are expoſed to danger on every ſide. But it is of no conſequence. We ſhall teach the univerſe, that A PEOPLE WHO HAVE ONCE TASTED LIBERTY, CAN NEVER RETURN TO SLAVERY.

If Spain is attacked, it is our duty to ſuccour her. I think 30 ſail of the line inſufficient. The more we diſplay our ſtrength, the leſs will others be diſpoſed to attack us. I move, that our ar-

mament conſiſt of 44 ſail of the line, of which 14 ſhall be fitted out in the ports of the Mediterranean.

M. Pethian—The queſtion before us is of immenſe importance, and may decide on peace or war. I will not here enlarge on the neceſſity of maintaining peace, becauſe our finances are not yet put on a ſolid baſis—becauſe public order is not perfectly eſtabliſhed, and a war may overturn it. *If Spain had not counted on our aſſiſtance, ſhe would not have dared to attack England.* We may arrange the cabinets of Europe thus:—Turkey, England, Sweden—againſt Ruſſia, Spain, Denmark, and France. In preference to that of the Committee, I would propoſe the following decree:—"The "French nation, conſtantly deſirous of preſerving peace and union "between Spain and France, and of ſtrengthening every mutual "tie that is conformable to juſtice and reaſon, declares, that it "reſerves to itſelf to decide on the Family Compact, after "more full information; and it invites the King to interpoſe his "mediation, to ſtifle the ſeeds of diſſention in their birth."

M. Boutidoux—It is doubtleſs a very philoſophic idea, to conſider all mankind as one family.

Benevolence inſpired the *Abbé de S. Pierre* with this fine dream. You have done all in your power to realize it; but whilſt there ſhall be rivalſhips of glory or wealth among nations, the ambition of men will always prove a ſource of diſputes and wars.

I think that France cannot ſeparate herſelf from all the other powers in Europe, without ſeeing an end to all her greatneſs. Can any one deny the obligations we owe to the ſervices of Spain? England is the only power we have to fear; and our foreign poſſeſſions cannot be ſecured, without the ſame protection is extended to thoſe of Spain. You have put the creditors of the State under the protection of the Nation. Is it a debt leſs ſacred to protect your ſolemn treaties? England, whatever may be ſaid, will always regard as enemies, thoſe who rival her. On this ſuppoſition, her

her hatred will increaſe with the progreſs of our induſtry. Our liberty will increaſe farther the antipathy of theſe *haughty iſlanders*. I move, that after ſuppreſſing the two firſt articles of the propoſed decree, the King ſhall be entreated to make known to his Catholic Majeſty, that the intention of France is to preſerve her defenſive engagements—that, however, the miniſters of the King be ordered to attend to the performance of the 23d and 34th Articles of the Family Compact—and that, with a view to the preſent ſituation of things, an armament ſhall be formed of 45 ſail of the line, and a proportionable number of ſmall veſſels.

M. Riquetti—I think it indiſpenſibly neceſſary to declare in general, that France will henceforth reſpect no articles in treaties but ſuch as are *defenſive* and *commercial*, leſt this arrangement ſhould be ſuppoſed to be confined to Spain alone, and leſt malicious people ſhould take occaſion to ſay, that the Aſſembly, by their decree, meant to diſoblige Spain.

Some of the Aſſembly demanded a deciſion.

The prior reading was granted to the propoſed decree of the Committee.

When the two firſt articles were read, M. Charles Lameth moved the previous queſtion.

M. Riquetti—The majority of the Committee agree to withdraw theſe articles, provided the words *defenſive* and *commercial* be added to the principal one. This will unite the different opinions. I muſt add, that the majority of the Committee alſo adopt the amendment of *M. Ricard*, for arming 45 inſtead of 30 ſail of the line.

M. L'Abbé Maury—It is we alone who have made the Family Compact an offenſive treaty. Spain never ſo interpreted it. We have twice hurried her into a war, with which ſhe had no con-

cern. You announce that you will execute your treaties, and at the ſame time you pray the King to form new ones. The ſecond article will diſquiet Spain, and allow England to gain all her ends. England wiſhes to negociate a commercial treaty with Spain, and ſhe will come to her with your decree in her hand, and ſay,— "You have only uncertain treaties with France; I offer you a "fixed one."—

M. Barnave—I move the previous queſtion againſt the amendment of the *Abbé Maury;* and farther, that by a decree the King be entreated to interfere as mediator between the two powers.

M. Riquetti—I ſhall now preſent you with the propoſed decree, as amended and altered in conſequence of the diſcuſſion.

"The National Aſſembly, deliberating upon the propoſition of "the King, contained in the letter of the Miniſter, of Auguſt 1,"

"Decrees—That the King ſhall be entreated to make known to "his Catholic Majeſty, that the French Nation, while it takes every "meaſure adapted to the maintenance of peace, will obſerve the "defenſive and commercial engagements which its government has "previouſly contracted with Spain.

"Decrees farther, That the King ſhall be entreated to cauſe a "negociation be immediately commenced with the Miniſters of "his Catholic Majeſty, to ſtrengthen and perpetuate by a treaty, "the ties that are uſeful to both nations, and to ſettle with pre-"ciſion and clearneſs every ſtipulation, which ſhall not be entirely "conformed to thoſe views of univerſal peace, and thoſe princi-"ples of juſtice, *which ſhall for ever henceforth be the politics of the "French.*

"Moreover the National Aſſembly, taking into conſideration "the armaments of different nations of Europe, their gradual in-"creaſe

" creaſe—together with the ſecurity of the French colonies, and " of the national commerce,

" Decrees—That the King ſhall be entreated to give orders to " increaſe the fleet in commiſſion to 45 ſail of the line, with a " proportional number of frigates and other veſſels."

This decree met the ideas of all parties, and was *unanimouſly* carried.

So remarkable a concurrence of opinion amongſt thoſe who had differed about every other queſtion, could only ariſe from the moſt powerful conviction, that the meaſure was founded in wiſdom and neceſſity. Indeed I cannot imagine, Sir, that any of my readers will peruſe the narrative I have given, even with ſlight attention, without ſeeing the propriety of the proceedings of the Aſſembly, and being convinced that their decree united prudence and juſtice in equal proportions.

They admit that they have *need of peace*; but they rightly judge at the ſame time, that they muſt ſeek for it without weakneſs or timidity. They are fully ſenſible that it is an improper time for them to go to war; but they perceive alſo, that the time to ſupport their *ally*, is when that ally is threatened with an attack. They would willingly confine themſelves to their own affairs, which at preſent demand all their attention; but Spain has thrice interfered to ſave them, and every tie of gratitude and honour, as well as a ſolemn treaty, bind them not to abandon her in the hour of danger. They are convinced that it is with England that they ought now to be connected and allied; but they ſee no deſire on her part to form this fraternal union—her whole conduct has inſpired them with alarm and diſtruſt. They declare their abhorrence and renunciation of all ambitious wars; but they announce at ſame time, that their neighbours have not yet completely adopted theſe generous principles; and till that be the caſe, they do not conceive themſelves ſafe when ſtanding alone,

nor

nor think they ſhould fulfil their duty to the people, if they ſhould diſconnect themſelves from their ancient and faithful ally, by whoſe aſſiſtance only they can be enabled to equal the hoſtile fleets of their mutual enemies.

Such reaſoning appears to me to be cloſe connected and wiſe; but I find an attempt has been made to repreſent it as both *inconſiſtent* and *impolitic*, by *M. de Calonne*, that modern *Ahitophel*, whoſe luckleſs counſels have ſo ſtrongly influenced your conduct. He thinks it ſtrange that the Committee judge it neceſſary to arm, after repelling the idea that England wiſhed to profit from the troubles of France;—but he wants diſcernment to perceive, that in their expreſſions to this purpoſe, the Committee rather deſign to point out what they *wiſh to be able to ſay*, than what they are actually warranted in ſaying. Moſt aſſuredly they diſtruſt England; and her conduct, I mean that of her miniſters, has given them good reaſon to do ſo; but their delicacy prevents their enlarging on that diſtruſt, and their prudence forbids them to increaſe the cauſe for it, by harſh language on the one hand, or ſhewing fear on the other. *M. de Calonne*, who was in terms of the cloſeſt intimacy with you, might know perfectly that the armaments of England had no deſign on France; but what was his countrymen to conclude, who knew nothing of the politics of Downing-ſtreet? They ſaw formidable preparations for what appeared to them no adequate object. The deſign of theſe armaments might well be ſuſpected, from the great pains taken to keep it ſecret, even from the people of England themſelves. The authors of theſe armaments, they perfectly knew to be no friends of their revolution. Add to this, that a people in the infancy of liberty, are jealous to exceſs of the ineſtimable treaſure they have acquired, and terrified at every thing that can have the remoteſt tendency to endanger it *.

* A curious inſtance of this *trembling vigilance*, I obſerved lately in the department of Aiſne, who addreſſed the Aſſembly, to requeſt that they would take notice of, and demand ſatisfaction for inſults committed in ſome nations, againſt the *national cockade* of France. So far do their attentions go.

M. de Calonne expatiates on the abſurdity of their meditating on war, at a time when the want of ſubordination and diſcipline amongſt their forces would expoſe them to diſappointment and defeat. Theſe are the incorrect ideas of people on this ſide the channel. In the firſt moments of their liberty, a people ſcarcely can avoid licentiouſneſs, if all is tranquil around them; but a great and foreign danger recals them at once to reaſon and reflection. Our brave ſeamen, ſaid *M. de Beauharnois* in the Aſſembly, will no longer forget ſubordination when the enemy makes his approach. Liſten, Sir, to one who has no intereſt to deceive you. That war which you and *M. de Calonne* conceive as ſo terrible to France, is viewed by her legiſlators with perfect equanimity: for it will annihilate their internal differences, by giving them external objects of attention; it may injure the finances a little, but it will conſolidate the conſtitution.

Could you, Sir, or *M. de Calonne*, ſuppoſe to yourſelves for a moment, that the French nation would abandon Spain, an old and tried friend,—for England, a new acquaintance, ſo ſhy, ſo ſuſpicious in her manners? Surely, Sir, you ſhould firſt have recognized the *authority* of the National Aſſembly, and owned at leaſt their *exiſtence* as a legal body. Hitherto you have treated them only as a kind of ſuperior mob.

A wiſe Miniſter would have obſerved with a watchful eye, the growing conſtitution of regenerated France. A generous Stateſman would have hailed the liberty of a great people. A humane man would have rejoiced to have diſcovered in that event, the foundation of future peace to his own country, and to the world.

It is not my buſineſs here to point out what Britain ſhould have done; and though we could decide that matter, it is now too late to profit from the deciſion. But I am warranted to affirm, that there were many ways in which ſhe could have prevented the evils I ſpeak of, and inſured the completeſt confidence on the part of France, in ſtrict conſiſtency with her dignity and intereſt

intereſt as a nation. I am warranted to ſay, Sir, from my own perſonal knowledge, that the French patriots would have met you more than half way. If they had had any grounds to hope for ſucceſs, the National Aſſembly of France would have propoſed to you, to recogniſe their new government; to declare that Britain would always be, what every principle of reaſon, of nature, and of juſtice, requires her to be—the friend and ally of every free people; to renew the treaties ſubſiſting between you and their ancient deſpotic government: And this done, Sir, the French nation would have formed an eternal alliance with you, on any terms you pleaſed, I mean, on any that in juſtice or reaſon you could have propoſed; and before the power of ſuch an alliance, the feeble obligation of the Family Compact, and of every other treaty hoſtile to Britain, would have vaniſhed into empty air—the claims of *ambition* would have fallen before thoſe of *eternal juſtice*—and the pleas of *perſonal ſecurity* would have operated no more, when that ſecurity was no longer in danger.

Had you, Sir, poſſeſſed magnanimity of mind to have planned ſuch a meaſure as this, you would have ſhewn yourſelf truly a man and a maſter, inſtead of a boy in politics. You would have accompliſhed what is the moſt difficult of all things in State operations, to *reconcile intereſt* and *juſtice*, *policy* and *morality*, the intereſts of one people, and the great intereſt of human kind. You would have at once diſarmed your moſt formidable foe, and converted her into your firmeſt friend. You would have ſtopped the further effuſion of human blood in France, and reſtored peace and happineſs to 25 millions of people. The unuttered bleſſings of thouſands, whom war will render helpleſs widows, or fatherleſs children, would have been counted as due to you, by Him whoſe all-piercing eye diſcerns the future, as well as the preſent. The name of PITT, would have been as venerable, as it is odious in France. Bigoted Spain would have viewed with indignant regret, the confirmation of Liberty, by the guarantee of power, confounding the laſt hopes of deſpotiſm. Pruſſia would have found an eternal obſtacle placed againſt his malignant activity, and mourned

mourned like Alexander, becauſe he could not employ his numerous armies in ravaging the earth any more. The haughty Czarina would have ſighed at a meaſure, which annihilated all her reſtleſs projects of boundleſs ambition; and all the nations of Europe would have ſeen, with aſtoniſhment, a maſter-ſtroke of politics, which they had not had ſagacity to contrive, nor courage to execute. For the firſt time perhaps in the hiſtory of mankind, a treaty would have been ſigned between two courts, neither dictated by criminal ambition, nor extorted by dire neceſſity; a treaty founded on the profoundeſt principles of wiſdom, and the pureſt principles of benevolence; a treaty which Angels would have ſubſcribed, and which, in the eyes of Heaven, would have ſerved to cover the multitude of ſins of former papers of State, to make atonement for the Court—to purify her ancient charter-cheſts, and waſh out the ſtains of her deceitful and unjuſt conventions.

When France was enſlaved, ſhe occupied much of your attention. Your politics had then a viſible reference to her, and you were zealous to bind her by treaties, which her deſpotic governors never obſerved longer than was convenient for them. But when ſhe became free—when a permanent alliance could have been formed with her, on the immutable baſis of juſtice and honour, you loſt the glorious opportunity, and conſtrained her to return to the arms of a deſpotic power, whoſe bigotry and ignorance could only be ſhaded by its friendſhip and fidelity to her concerns. On this occaſion I muſt quote the well-founded obſervation of an able writer, who, ſpeaking of the commercial treaty, ſays, "When the old ſyſtem of the French monarchy was to every ra-"tional appearance in its vigour, Mr. Pitt was courting her "alliance, and binding our merchants to her, by the ſtricteſt ob-"ligations of a reciprocal and indiſſoluble intereſt. Now that a "comprehenſive and complete revolution has totally ſtopt the "ſource of her foreign intrigues, as well as of her domeſtic miſ-"chiefs—when ſhe holds out the olive branch, with a ſincerity, "ariſing not from the enthuſiaſm of the moment, not from a raſh "repentance, and inconſiderate recognition of her errors, but

" from the univerſal prevalence of a diſpoſition completely adverſe " from ſuch purſuits, and of intereſts wholly incompatible with " them, he rejects her friendſhip with a contempt equally unwiſe " and unbecoming: he ſcatters between the two countries, rivals " no longer for dominion, the ſeeds of an inextinguiſhable diſ- " cord; he renovates, and perpetuates to after ages, the ſpirit of " hereditary hatred, and the principle of conteſt and deſola- " tion." *

Perhaps you conſidered it as enough, that you had not taken any open ſtep againſt the liberties of France—that you had not declared to Parliament, that France *ought not to be free*—nor ſolicited the people of England, to give their money, for the purpoſe of holding 24 millions of their fellow-creatures in chains. But, Sir, Stateſmen do not wait for *overt acts*. It would then be too late to take precautions. It is ſufficient if *diſpoſitions* are manifeſted, and the hoſtility of your ſentiments to the general principles of the new conſtitution of France were perfectly clear.

Perhaps alſo you might ſuppoſe, that the language of contempt and malignity you and your colleagues were holding relative to the proceedings in France, would not tranſpire, nor be known in that country. You forget, Sir, that a people juſt delivered from the priſon of ſlavery, are all eyes, and all ears. I will inform you, if you do not know it, that " a bird of the air carried the " voice;" and that not only your ſpeeches in Parliament, but your private converſations, have been wafted over to the National Aſſembly of France.

Mr. Burke's libel in Parliament againſt the French Revolution, with your approbation of it, was rapidly tranſlated into all the Gazettes; and ſince that time, your name and his have ſerved as a kind of general title to all the miſerable ariſtocratic pamphlets publiſhed at Paris. Your aſſent to Lord Valletort's abuſe, was

* Errors of the Britiſh Miniſter, Gazetteer, Nov. 1.

equally

equally well known. I have now before me the Mercure National, publiſhed by Miſs Keralio, the fair Hiſtorian of our Elizabeth, who, after quoting the words of that obſcure Lord, aſks with emotion, if it be an *Engliſhman*—if it be a *free-man*, who has drawn ſo falſe and ungenerous a picture of the ſublimeſt revolution ever operated on earth? Her candour leads her to ſuppoſe, that he may have been impoſed upon, by truſting to the miſerable relations in the miniſterial news-papers, *(dans quelles feuilles mepriſables du parti antipatriotique, l'honorable membre a-t-il donc étudié l'Hiſtoire de la Revolution Françoiſe?)* *

Indeed, had your conduct towards the French been perfectly unexceptionable, and afforded no room for the leaſt diſtruſt on their part, it would ſtill have been incumbent on you as a wiſe Stateſman, as ſoon as you perceived you were diſtruſted, to have removed an error that might be diſaſtrous to your country. If your actions were right, you ſaw however very plainly, that they were not ſeen in a proper point of view.

M. Dupont, whoſe words I quote below †, has perhaps miſrepreſented your intentions, and certainly thoſe of the people of

 England.

* "I had heard (ſays a writer) Mr. Pitt obſerve, with an air of frankneſs, "that he thought our Revolution would be ultimately favourable to England, "in as much as it would put us beyond the reach of the caprices of thoſe turbulent and ambitious characters who had provoked ſo many wars ruinous to "both nations; but two days after, I had the mortification to hear him approve *word for word* of the famous Philippic pronounced againſt us in the "Britiſh Senate, by the eloquent ſcholar of the Jeſuits of St. Omer. Upon the "whole, Sir, we can, and we ought to return mutual eſteem to the Engliſh; "but we have little reaſon to truſt to the good-will of their *Government*."

Gazette Nationale ou Moniteur, 1790, p. 820.

† "She (that is England) deſigns, if we fall unheeding into the ſnare, and, 'in conſequence of *our* abandonment, if Spain do not yield to her requiſitions, 'to overpower that generous monarchy:—by a prompt and vigorous war come to the reſult of *commerce*, which is the principle motive of her armament; and in fine fall upon France deprived, in her turn, of that ALLY ſhe 'has

England. But if you were not *guilty*, you ought to have taken care not to be *ſuſpected*. In permitting ſuch fatal prejudices to prevail againſt Britain, in the minds of people in general, and even of thinking people in France, when you could ſo eaſily have prevented them, you have given a ſpecimen of improvidence, of want of political ſagacity and foreſight, which will confirm the opinion of your opponents, that it is not a forward acuteneſs, and a little volubility of tongue—but experience, years, and ſolid talents, that are required to form a great Miniſter.

You will now, Sir, foreſee the concluſion, which Truth obliges me to draw from the whole of the preceding reaſoning.—With Spain we had grounds for a quarrel; but with France none. The war with Spain would have been the war of the nation; but the war with France and Spain, if it take place, will be the war of the Miniſter. Rabaud de St. Etienne juſtly called it—*a war of cabinets*. I will go farther—As Spain would not have dared to go to war with us if France had not interfered, and as France would never have interfered had we acted a generous part towatds her, the war altogether, if it happens, will be the war of William Pitt.

' has deſerted:—ſtrip us of our poſſeſſions in INDIA and AMERICA:—deſtroy ' our marine and our commerce:—ruin our ports;—and reduce us merely to ' a continental power:—excite other enemies to oppreſs us; for *weakneſs* never ' wants a foe—and put us abſolutely in a ſtate, which can oppoſe nothing to ' the demands of that country, be they what they may.

' In this plan, which to me appears manifeſt, and which a child in politics ' might perceive as clearly as I do—it is unqueſtionably with much ſincerity ' that England aſſures us—" That her actual armament is by no means directed " againſt us—that ſhe deſires to maintain (for the preſent) inviolate the good " underſtanding ſo happily ſubſiſting between the two nations." No, no, ' *our turn* is not yet come—and although the Spaniſh nation be *valiant*, ' *powerful, reputable*—it is clear, that ſhe had much rather make war upon ' *Spain* than upon *France*—and yet more clear, prefer the engaging us *ſingly*, to ' the attacking us both *united*.'

Such,

Such, Sir, are the dangers to which your hefitating Councils, your dark ungenerous fyftem of policy towards the French nation, have expofed your country. But as it is now too late to correct errors that have already decided the point in queftion againft us, it only remains for you to confider, if there be any means to compenfate to your country, for evils that you have brought upon her. And there is one meafure, which, if you had magnanimity of mind enough to execute it, would yet make atonement for your paft mifconduct, and recompenfe England for her fufferings in this war. This is the DELIVERANCE OF SOUTH AMERICA. After afcertaining our fecurity at home, and in the Weft-Indies, let it be your grand object to fend a fleet to the Spanifh colonies. Proclaim to them, that you come, not to conquer nor invade their country, but to fet them free:—that you defire not to change their laws, their religion, nor to interfere with any of their poffeffions or property; but that your only object is to deliver them from the tyranny of Spain—to re-eftablifh their original governments—to reftore the ancient empire of the YNCAS, to form with them a treaty of commerce and alliance, to be their protector and their friend.

This meafure is equally juftifiable on principles of policy and reafon. Spain interfered to give liberty to our colonies, and we have a right to liberate her's in our turn. Spain has no right to oppreſs independent people, in diftant parts of the world. She has leſs claims over fuch people than we had over the Americans. All mankind have a title to interfere to relieve the oppreſſed. It is the common caufe of humanity—To talk of prefcription in fuch cafes, is an abfurdity. The rights of mankind are impreſcriptible. No length of time can fanctify injuftice. The longer it has fubfifted, the greater reafon there is for pulling it down.

Such a meafure, though it would fadly humble Spain at preſent, would ultimately tend to her real advantage. Her rich colonies, we all know, have ruined her induſtry, and funk her in floth, in ignorance, and in poverty. To deprive her of them, would be like taking away a great part of his eſtate from a profligate, who

ſquandered it in idleneſs and debauchery. It would be forcing him to return to induſtry and virtue. Spain held an honourable rank amongſt the nations of Europe, before ſhe diſcovered Mexico and Peru. Since that period, ſhe has been gradually declining, her manufactures have languiſhed, her commerce is reduced to nothing. She has already enough of territory: ſhe poſſeſſes one of the fineſt countries in Europe; and if ſhe were obliged to confine her attention to that alone, ſhe would become more happy, and I am convinced, more opulent than before.

The period then, Sir, ſeems to be arrived, when this great revolution in the affairs of nations may be executed. Bend to it your whole attention. It will immortalize the Miniſter who brings it about. If you have greatneſs of mind to atchieve ſuch an enterprize as this, the friends of mankind will forget the errors of your paſt adminiſtration; they will replace their eſtranged confidence in your character, and begin to believe, that you are indeed a Son of Chatham, and poſſeſs ſome principles of politics that are not Machiavelian.

You may attempt to ſet aſide the force of ſome of my reaſoning in this letter, by calling it *declamation;* but Sir, every impartial Engliſhman will feel that it is *truth.* The force of *facts* is not to be ſet aſide by mere aſſertions; and you muſt overſet my facts, before they will loſe their credit with thoſe whoſe approbation is alone worth poſſeſſing. I challenge not you only, but all who differ from the ſentiments of this letter, to produce in it one falſe fact—or one unfounded concluſion. I have obſerved ſome attempts to reply to my former letters in the news-papers; but they were too contemptible to merit an anſwer on my part. The crazy ſuggeſtions of uninformed bigotry, or the miſerable arguments of ſelfiſh intereſt, feebly labouring to vindicate what it does not itſelf approve, ſhall never induce me to take up my pen. If amongſt ſo many writers, whom it is aſſerted you or your colleagues retain in pay, to juſtify meaſures to which their own wiſdom and rectitude ſhould be a ſufficient defence, there be any of

ſuperior

ſuperior abilities, of large information, and ſound judgements—if there be any one whoſe genius is powerful enough to have reſiſted the depreſſing influence even of his venality, and who can write what he does not believe, with the ſame energy as though he wrote from the heart—let ſuch be appointed to anſwer me, and to defend your cauſe. With him I will deſcend into the fair field of Reaſon,—with him I will meaſure my ſword,—to him, if he prevails, I will reſign myſelf a *willing* captive, and glory even in heightening his triumph, which will be that of truth and reaſon. But till then, I muſt adhere to the ſentiments I have delivered, and ſubſcribe myſelf, Sir, one who wiſhes to be your admirer, but who never will be ſo till you change your maxims.

S. SEARCH.

POSTSCRIPT.

SINCE this letter was ſent to preſs, the news of the Convention between Count Florida Blança, and our Ambaſſador at Madrid, is arrived. Thanks to Heaven we ſhall have peace, in ſpite of all that you have done to involve us in war! Spain, juſtly alarmed for her rich poſſeſſions in India, and perceiving that ſhe would not obtain any decided ſupport from the National Aſſembly of France, without recognizing its authority, which ſhe is very loth to do---determined, *it is ſaid*, to concede all to us. The cool wiſdom of Count Florida Blanca, has brought this matter to a happy termination for his country. Compared to his, Sir, your conduct in this affair is truly that of a *young man.*

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For DECEMBER, 1795.

ART. I. *An Hiſtorical Diſſertation upon the Origin, Suſpenſion, and Revival of the Judicature and Independency of the Iriſh Parliament. With a Narrative of the Tranſactions in* 1719, *relative to the celebrated declaratory Law*; extracted from the Papers of the late Earl of Egmont; and a Comment on his Lordſhip's Opinion, upon the Legiſlative Union of theſe Kingdoms. To which *is* annexed the Standing Orders of the Houſe of Lords. Tranſcribed from a Copy printed by Authority the 11th of Feb. 1790. Accurately compared with the leading Caſes; the Dates and Cauſes of their Origin, Conſtruction, and Application, extracted from the Journals of Parliament in Great Britain and Ireland. By Hervey Viſcount Mountmorres, F. R. S. and M. R. I. A. 8vo. pp. 111. 3s. 6d. ſewed. Debrett. 1795.

WE have more than once offered our tribute of merited praiſe to Lord Mountmorres. While frivolity and diſſipation mark the conduct of ſo many others of the patrician order, it gives us pleaſure to find that his purſuits have for their objects the inſtruction and the happineſs of mankind. His intentions being thus humane and generous, though we cannot always commend the *means* that he employs in ſuch laudable purpoſes, we feel ourſelves bound not to treat them with harſhneſs.

Lord M. may probably deem it an honour to have been born in Ireland: but, to a man of his liberal mind, that circumſtance was unqueſtionably a misfortune. In no other country does truth find it ſo difficult to make its way on *certain points*: prejudice ſeems to have fixed there its favourite reſidence, and to have involved ſome particular topics in ſuch miſts of error, as to blind and deceive even the moſt liberal men; who are found combating under its banners, at the very time when they fondly imagine that they are ſupporting the cauſe of truth. Lord M. undoubtedly means well, but Iriſh prejudices ſtill hang about him: ſome of them indeed he has caſt away; and perhaps we might take ſome credit to ourſelves, as having been the inſtruments of his political converſion in one inſtance.

Some time ago, in one of his publications, he contended that the excluſion of Catholics from both houſes of parliament ought to be maintained as the *palladium* of the conſtitution of Ireland. We took the liberty of attacking the principle of that excluſion, and of ſhewing that it was completely unneceſſary to the end for which it was ſaid to have been adopted, viz. the ſupport of the Proteſtant eſtabliſhment in Ireland. We did not aim ſo hard a blow at prejudice as to ſhew how politically prepoſterous and abſurd ſuch an eſtabliſhment was, in a kingdom circumſtanced as that was; we contented ourſelves with quoting the authority of hiſtory to ſhew that, from the period of the reformation, or more particularly from the beginning of the reign of Queen Elizabeth to that of King William, Catholics not only were not incapable of ſitting in parliament, but that many of them actually did ſit in both houſes, the Proteſtant ſtill continuing the eſtabliſhed religion of the country: we ſpeak not of periods of war and confuſion, ſuch as thoſe which occurred in the days of Charles I. when the Catholics confederated at Kilkenny. Lord M. on a review of his opinion reſpecting the excluſion in queſtion, appears to have completely abandoned it as untenable, and as incompatible with hiſtorical truth. We wiſh that his Lordſhip, for his own ſake, had done it in a more manly manner, becauſe we wiſh that he had not let ſlip an opportunity of doing himſelf great honour; for, in our judgment, nothing can be more honourable to a liberal-minded man, than a public abjuration of an error, as ſoon as he is convinced of it. We ſhall have occaſion to reſume this ſubject, when we come to a particular part of the work before us.

What we have already ſaid about prejudice is extremely applicable even to his Lordſhip's dedicatory addreſs to the Marquis Cornwallis, which he has prefixed to his Diſſertation. He there launches out into the moſt unbounded praiſe of a nobleman from whom the truly noble Marquis is deſcended, and who has been emphatically called the *great* Duke of Ormond. It is ſurely in the annals of *party* alone, that our author could have diſcovered grounds for his lofty panegyric of this celebrated Duke. The praiſe of talents, indeed, cannot be denied to him: but the uſe to which he applied them was ſufficient to damn them, had they been ten times greater. It had long been the faſhion to admire, nay to idolize him: but hiſtory has ſtripped him of thoſe plumes, and holds him up as a man true to a particular party, not to the general intereſts of his country; of doubtful loyalty to his ſovereign, but of ſteady attention to the accumulation of wealth. His eſtate in 1641 did not exceed 7000 l. a year, and was then ſaddled with mortgages and with the jointure of his mother, Lady Thurles:—but, after the reſtoration,

ration, it was ſwelled to an enormous ſize by inordinate grants from the crown, ſuch as a faithful ſervant and honeſt patriot would not have been forward to accept, and would have adviſed his royal maſter not to beſtow. Had this hero of the preſent eulogium been what Lord M. repreſents him,—a mirror of patriotiſm and loyalty,—poſſibly, perhaps probably, he might have preſerved his unfortunate ſovereign from the block:—but, in ſerving his king, he muſt have taken into the protection of the law a vaſt body of men, who had immenſe property to loſe, and which, in caſe of a cordial treaty, muſt have been ſecured from confiſcation. The unfortunate Charles was extremely willing to conſent to meaſures, which would have quieted the minds of men in Ireland, reſtored tranquillity to that diſtracted kingdom, and procured a military reinforcement which might have given him a chance of preventing his own ignominious execution, and the extinction of royalty in England, by enabling him to conclude a treaty with his parliament, which ſhould clearly aſcertain the true bounds of the conſtitution, and ſecure to the crown and to the people their reſpective rights and privileges:—but the Duke of Ormond thwarted him in the buſineſs; and he, who for ſuch a length of time refuſed to treat with, or trifled with, the king's friends, found no difficulty in treating with the avowed enemies of his ſovereign, and ſurrendering to them the government of Ireland; as if it were ſafer in the hands of the parliamentarians, than in thoſe of the avowed ſupporters of the royal cauſe and of a conſtitutional monarchy. This ſurrender, he could not but know, would blaſt his maſter's hopes, and deluge his country with blood: yet he made it! Who will not, after this, be ſurpriſed to find that Lord M. ſhould have ſingled out this *excellent* nobleman as a mirror of patriotiſm and loyalty? We think that his Lordſhip was uncommonly unlucky in bringing within the ſame point of view the Duke of Ormond's adminiſtration in Ireland, and that of his illuſtrious deſcendant, the preſent Marquis Cornwallis, in Hindoſtan; for ſurely no two adminiſtrations form more complete contraſts to each other. One maintained a bloody war, carried on in the face of juſtice; a war into which the great bulk of the land-owners of the country were driven for the preſervation of their eſtates, which they ſaw the miniſters of government tearing from them after ages of poſſeſſion, on a pretence that the titles were defective: thoſe titles the king was willing to confirm, and the parliament of Ireland was as willing to concur with him in the act: but the Lords Juſtices fruſtrated the royal intention, and the people, driven to deſpair, broke out into exceſſes which the good diſpoſition of the king, had it been ſuffered to operate, would

have prevented. Proclamations of pardon indeed were iſſued by the Lords Juſtices, then in the intereſt of the long parliament: but the pardon was limited to ſuch as were *not freeholders*; for, had it not been thus limited, it might have deſtroyed the harveſt of confiſcations to which theſe iniquitous governors were looking. The conſequences were ſuch as might have been and no doubt were foreſeen: the ſword was drawn, and the ſcabbard thrown away. It was under ſuch rulers that Ormond began his career; it was under ſuch auſpices that he firſt ſerved; and thus did he contribute to let looſe the horrors of war in a devoted country, which might with a word, with one act of juſtice, have been ſoothed into peace. Not ſuch was the conduct of his deſcendant, the illuſtrious Cornwallis. He drew the ſword in India to prevent the invaſion of property; to maintain the Rajah of Travancore in the poſſeſſion of his eſtates, of part of which, at leaſt, Tippoo wanted to diſpoſſeſs him. It was not the well-being of merely a part of the people under his government, of this or that favoured caſt of men, that the Marquis ſtudied to promote: he viewed *all* with the eye of a father, and to *all* he extended a father's care: inſtead of founding the hopes of revenue on inſecure or defective titles, he laboured to cut up ſuch hopes by the root; and he ceaſed not till he procured the adoption of a ſyſtem, which has confirmed to the landholders of Britiſh-India the quiet and undiſturbed poſſeſſion of their lands, as long as they fulfil the covenants ſpecified in the deed by which they hold them. Ormond left Ireland amid the execrations of the loyaliſts; and when he again returned to it, he contrived to make himſelf perhaps the moſt opulent ſubject in the king's dominions. Lord Cornwallis left India loaded with the bleſſings of every deſcription of men, and came back to England richer than when he left it, only in reputation. His principles reſpecting the country under his government were noble, juſt, and humane; they were his own; or if they were *hereditary*, it certainly was not from the Duke of Ormond that they deſcended. From that duke he indeed derived a noble and royal deſcent: but he has reflected on him infinitely more honour than he ever could have inherited from him.

In his introduction to the work, Lord M. ſays that

'Though the apparent deſign of this compilation is to trace the origin, ſuſpenſion, and revival of the juriſdiction of the Iriſh Parliament; a ſubject however intereſting it might have been in 1782, now of leſs moment, becauſe it is no longer a queſtion of novelty: yet it will be found to lead to a diſſertation of the greateſt importance, that naturally ſprings from the ſources of information, of which the author

author has been poſſeſſed; viz. the legiſlative incorporation of Great Britain and Ireland.'

An union between England and Ireland is a meaſure of immenſe importance to both, and ought to occupy the thoughts of the beſt informed men in the two kingdoms. Should it ever be a ſubject of diſcuſſion in the two legiſlatures, we fear it will not be debated coolly and rationally, but that paſſion and prejudice will have too much influence on the deciſion. If Lord M. really entertains hopes that an union may be effected, he is more ſanguine than we are. The period, we think, is gone by, the occaſion has been loſt, and we apprehend that it will never occur again, until an event ſhall have taken place, which on various accounts every man ought to deplore and deprecate,—a bloody war in Ireland, ſucceſsfully terminated by Britiſh arms, and ending in the complete conqueſt of that kingdom.

Chap. 1ſt of this work treats of the juriſdiction of the Iriſh parliament, and gives an account of the origin, progreſs, ſuſpenſion, and renewal of the Appellant Juriſdiction of the Houſe of Lords of Ireland. There being now no diſpute about the juriſdiction of the Iriſh parliament, and the ſupreme judicial authority of its Houſe of Peers, this chapter can be intereſting only to Antiquaries, whom the noble Lord improperly calls *Antiquarians*. It may not be amiſs, however, to correct ſome hiſtorical miſtakes, and to point out ſome errors which might not have been expected in an author of Lord Mountmorres's accuracy and reading. He takes for his guides Sir Edward Coke, Sir John Davis, and the Lord Chancellor Euſtace; men who poſſeſſed great knowlege of *law*, but, with ſubmiſſion be it ſaid, they are not recognized as authorities in matters of *hiſtory*. Coke knew little of Ireland; Davis knew more, but he was a *novus homo* there, and moſt certainly was not acquainted with many important tranſactions which had taken place in that country above 400 years before his time. Lord M. ſtates that Sir John Davis, in his ſpeech as ſpeaker of the Iriſh parliament in 1313 (this date is by an error of the preſs, we preſume, given for 1613,) aſſerts that the *firſt* parliament, regularly convened in Ireland, was in the declining years of Edward II. Might not a man, who was unacquainted with the hiſtory of that monarch, be led by the expreſſion "declining years" to think that he died in an advanced age? when in reality he was cut off in the very vigour of manhood, in his 43d year.

The noble Lord farther makes Sir John Davis aſſert, as a general propoſition, 'that, before that period, Ireland was repreſented in the Engliſh parliament.' The ſpeaker diſplayed,

on this head, remarkable ignorance of his ſubject; and we are really ſurpriſed that a writer of Lord M.'s information ſhould beſtow ſuch an encomium on Sir John's ſpeech, as to call it 'the moſt comprehenſive, perhaps, that ever was delivered.' It is well known, not to build on the authority of thoſe who maintain that Henry II. tranſmitted to Ireland an inſtrument, the purport of which is ſufficiently explained by the name given to it, "*Modus tenendi Parliamentum*," that he conveyed to his ſon John, if not the abſolute, at leaſt the qualified ſovereignty over Ireland, certainly in a more ample manner than Hugh Lupus was made ſovereign of Cheſhire, or the Stanleys were made kings of Man: it is alſo well known that John reſided in Ireland a conſiderable time, exerciſing ſovereign power in conſequence of his father's grant; that he divided ſuch parts of the country as were under the Engliſh juriſdiction, into *counties*; that he appointed ſheriffs, and gave charters of incorporation to various towns. It is clear, by fair inference, that the qualified ſovereignty, which he enjoyed, precluded the idea of ſending members from Ireland to repreſent that kingdom in the parliament of England; and as John muſt have been an abſolute king, which he was not, and which the Engliſh ſettlers in Ireland would never allow him to be, had he ruled Ireland without the aſſiſtance of parliament, it is reaſonable to preſume that it was in conjunction with ſuch an aſſembly ſitting in Ireland, that he legiſlated for that kingdom. Not to reſt the matter on mere inference, we find that Sir John Davis did not underſtand the ſenſe of the parliament roll 10th Edward II. on which he founded his aſſertion that parliaments were *firſt* regularly convened there in the reign of that prince. On the words of it, viz. "de Parliamentis *ſingulis annis* in Hiberniâ tenendis, et de legibus et conſuetudinibus *ibidem* emendandis," Lord Coke (whom Lord M. to be conſiſtent, muſt admit as authority, for he quotes him,) makes theſe obſervations:—"Hereby it appeareth, that there *were* parliaments holden in Ireland before this time, and order taken at this parliament, that they ſhould be holden *every year*; and the like acts were made in England in 4th Edw. III. and 36th Edw. III. for parliaments to be holden in England."—Hence alſo it appears that regular *annual parliaments*, or at leaſt *annual meetings* of parliament, were eſtabliſhed in Ireland before they were in England. It may be urged, perhaps, that Lord Coke's differing from Sir John Davis about the meaning of a ſtatute is no convincing proof that the latter is wrong; we will therefore put it beyond a doubt that Sir John Davis was not maſter of his ſubject, and that he advanced an hiſtorical falſehood, when he aſſerted as a general propoſition that before the reign of Edward II. Ireland

was

was repreſented in the *Engliſh* parliament. Lord M. will not pretend that, ſhould the preſent parliament of Ireland be deſired by the king to meet him in England, or in Germany, and ſhould agree to obey his ſummons, it could with any propriety of ſpeech be called either an Engliſh or a German parliament, merely on account of the place of its ſitting. This being premiſed, we will aſſert that, *before* the reign of Edward II. an Iriſh parliament repreſenting the eſtates of Ireland was regularly aſſembled in England; where it ſat without meeting or joining with the Engliſh parliament, and by its own ſeparate authority (under the word parliament we include the three eſtates,) enacted laws for the people of Ireland. Mr. Molyneux, whom we conſider as a reſpectable authority, quoting an authority ſtill more reſpectable than his own, tells us that in the white book of the Exchequer in Dublin is recorded a writ of the 9th of Edw. I. ſent to his chancery of Ireland, wherein that monarch mentions, *Quædam ſtatuta per nos de aſſenſu prelatorum, comitum, baronum et communitatum regni noſtri Hiberniæ, nuper apud Lincoln, et quædam alia ſtatuta poſtmodum apud Eborum facta.* Herein no mention whatever is made of the Engliſh parliament: but the uſual conſtituent parts of a parliament, prelates, earls, barons, and commons,—in a word, all the uſual branches of the legiſlature,—are mentioned, not as a new aſſemblage, but as a regular and eſtabliſhed body well known to the Iriſh conſtitution. We do not mean to ſay that the Iriſh parliament did not occaſionally ſit together with that of England, which certainly was the caſe, but to ſhew that, before the reign of Edward II. Ireland had a diſtinct and regularly conſtituted parliament, which ſometimes aſſembled out of the kingdom as well as in it.

In the 1ſt chapter of this publication, which called from us theſe remarks, our readers will find ſome intereſting and curious details of the meaſures which led to the paſſing of the celebrated act of the 6th Geo. I. by which the authority of the Britiſh legiſlature was declared to extend to Ireland, and by which the judicature of the Iriſh Houſe of Lords as a court of appeal was aboliſhed. This famous act, our readers well know, has ſince been repealed, and the Iriſh parliament reinſtated in its ſupreme dominion over that country.

Chapter 2d treats of the repreſentation of the Houſe of Lords of Ireland in 1719 to King George I.; it gives the late Earl of Egmont's account of that tranſaction, together with his Lordſhip's opinion of the legiſlative incorporation of Great Britain and Ireland. A peruſal of this chapter has produced on us a very different effect from that which Lord M., no doubt, wiſhed it to have on his readers in general. We had hitherto conſidered the members of the Iriſh Houſe of Lords, of that day, as

genuine patriots, engaged in a glorious ſtruggle that had for object the emancipation of their country from a foreign legiſlature; and we never could think of the manly ſtand made by them in 1719, without feeling the moſt lively indignation againſt the daſtardly Houſe of Commons that deſerted the Peers on that trying occaſion, and prevented the ſtand from being effectual. Lord M., however, has cured us of our enthuſiaſtic admiration of thoſe noble characters, and has turned it into *contempt:* we ſee from his account, given *longè alio intuitu*, that the Iriſh peers of that day were ſelfiſh beings, who felt not for their country, but for their own political importance; and who, provided their appellant juriſdiction had been left untouched, would have ſuffered, without a murmur or a remonſtrance, the Britiſh parliament to infringe the deareſt rights and intereſts of Ireland. This conſideration brings us back to the queſtion relative to the excluſion of Catholics from ſeats in parliament; on which we ſtated, in the commencement of this article, that Lord M. had, much to his honour, changed his opinion, and read his political recantation. His Lordſhip tells us in a note, p. 24, 'that the Roman Catholics were firſt diſqualified from ſitting in parliament in 1691, by an ENGLISH act of parliament, before which period they were admiſſible.' Where was the patriotic ſpirit of the Iriſh Houſe of Lords when that act paſſed: when the *Britiſh* legiſlature *preſcribed* to the two houſes of parliament of *Ireland* what deſcription of men ſhould not have ſeats in either? Was any remonſtrance framed againſt ſuch an invaſion of national rights? Was one ſingle reſolution paſſed to record the indignation of the Iriſh ſenate againſt ſo flagrant a violation of the ſovereignty of Ireland? No, both houſes bowed to the foreign yoke; becauſe, though it galled them, it galled ſtill more the great body of the nation, and ſecured to a minority of it a monopoly of *ſubordinate* power, at which juſtice would have bluſhed, and which a gallant and patriotic body of ſenators would have ſpurned as an indignity and diſgrace. The Lords, when their *own perſonal* importance was brought into queſtion, could call before them the Barons of the Exchequer of Ireland, and aſk them whether, in compliance with their oath of office, they had informed the king of Ireland of the encroachment made on the prerogatives of the Iriſh crown by an order of the Engliſh Houſe of Lords, ſetting aſide a judgment of the Houſe of Lords of Ireland, the ſupreme judicature of that kingdom: they could call up reſolution enough to commit the Barons on that occaſion:—but, when, by an Engliſh act of parliament, preſcribing the qualifications for admiſſion into both houſes of the Iriſh parliament, the legiſlative authority of the king, lords, and commons of Ireland was

attacked and superseded, the Irish Lords were silent; they remonstrated not against the national indignity, but quietly obeyed the *edict* transmitted to them from Westminster. They were humbled: but they considered the Catholics as still more humbled; and that was balm to their *magnanimous* minds. Surely it was a wonder that no noble Lord ventured to stand up, when the resolution for committing the Barons of the Exchequer was under discussion, and to remind their Lordships that, in the sentence which they were about to pass on those learned judges, they were going to record their own disgrace, by punishing a breach of duty in three men, when they themselves, together with the other house of parliament, had scandalously betrayed their duty to their country and posterity, by not having raised their voice against the English act of 1691, by which the Irish parliament and nation were degraded.

Chap. 3d contains reflections on the Earl of Egmont's account of the representation of the Irish Lords to George I. In the course of these reflections, Lord M. states that, in the reign of Charles II. Catholics were admissible to parliament; and, instead of insisting, as he did formerly, that their perpetual exclusion from it should be maintained as the Palladium of the Constitution, (strange that what destroyed the Constitution should ever have been described by any man of sense as its Palladium!) he thus, by a complete but honourable recantation of his former opinion, urges the rights of the Catholics to equal privileges with the rest of their fellow-subjects of Ireland:

'The act of uniformity was new-modelled in favour of the Protestant dissenters in 1719, and they were exempted from all restrictions; save only that of receiving the sacrament according to the rites of the church of England, when they obtained offices; commonly known in both kingdoms, by the short name of the Test Act, which in 1781 was totally repealed in Ireland.

'One of the important measures which still remains to be accomplished, is the extension of this toleration; and placing the Catholicks in the same situation with Protestant dissenters; to which, their good conduct for upwards of a century, gives a fair claim upon the justice; as well as the true policy, and lasting interest of the community.

'Their claim may be thus shortly stated with mathematical precision:

'All subjects are entitled to equal privileges; unless they preserve dangerous connections with the enemies of the state; and when those connections are dissolved and their tenets are no longer dangerous, they should be restored to the privileges which they formerly possessed.

'The Irish Catholicks were admissible to offices and into Parliament until the Revolution; they were suspended from those advantages, for their attachment to the Pope and the Pretender; but these

those temporary attachments no longer exist, nor are no longer dangerous; therefore, the only remaining disabilities should be removed, and the CATHOLICKS should be restored to those privileges which they FORMERLY enjoyed in common with the rest of the community'.

The truth of what we said, at the outset of this article, about the force of prejudice, is strongly manifested by the above passage. We are perfectly satisfied that Lord M. intended to be liberal when he wrote it: but his liberality was defeated by prejudice; for his words would lead a man to believe that the Catholics have lately abjured opinions respecting the Pope, which formerly they pertinaciously maintained, and for which, together with their attachment to the Pretender, they were excluded from parliament. It is a certain fact that the opinions which the Catholics maintain at this moment, as a body, respecting the Pope, are precisely the same that their ancestors maintained in the reigns of Elizabeth, James I. Charles I. and Charles II. during which they filled seats in both houses of parliament; and that the opinions which they have abjured are precisely the same which their ancestors not only after, but ages before, the reformation, were always ready to abjure: they relate solely to the *temporal* power of the Pope in these kingdoms, or to any pretensions to a spiritual power of annulling *civil* duties or obligations; and the abjuration of such power is nobly recorded in the acts of *præmunire* and *provisors*, passed even in those days in which the English parliament was most submissive to the spiritual authority of the Pope as the visible head of the church, of which England was then a part. A reference to the oath of allegiance framed of late for the Catholics, both of this country and Ireland, will shew that we are correct in our statement.

[*To be concluded in our next Review.*]

ART. II. *Sketches of a History of Literature.* Containing Lives and Characters of the most eminent Writers in different Languages, Antient and Modern; and Critical Remarks on their Works. Together with several Literary Essays. The whole designed as a Directory, to guide the Judgment and form the Taste in reading the best Authors. By the late Robert Alves, A. M. To which is prefixed a short Biographical Account of the Author. 8vo. pp. 298. 5s. Boards. Chapman, Edinburgh; Cadell jun. and Davies, London.

THIS author has been *coram nobis* as a poet, some years ago *, in which character we did not see much to blame nor much to commend: but, having dismounted from his Pegasus, we

* See Rev. vol. lxxiii. p. 467.

find

find him, in the more humble *walk* of a proſe writer, to have been poſſeſſed of conſiderable merit. Though this is a poſthumous publication, the work was in the preſs, with a preface prepared by the author, previouſly to his deceaſe in January 1794.

It has been ſaid that "a woman ſeldom writes her mind except in her poſtſcript:" but we have long found that authors unfold their deſigns, and inſinuate inſtructions as to the ſpirit with which they wiſh to have their works read, in the *preface*. We ſhall therefore indulge the *manes* of the author under conſideration, with the inſertion of his preface, as he can no longer ſpeak to mortals in his own defence, *vivâ voce:*

'The following Sketches are intended to exhibit a critical review of Literature from the earlieſt times; a ſubject pregnant both with inſtruction and entertainment. The Author flatters himſelf, that, as far as they go, they will afford a diſtinct view of ancient and modern learning, with a juſt eſtimation of moſt writers, whether in philoſophy, poetry, hiſtory, or oratory.

'In order to render this work as uſeful as poſſible, he has interſperſed remarks upon compoſition in general; and in theſe it is his conſtant endeavour to eſtabliſh polite learning on the principles of common ſenſe, genuine purity, and eloquence. He has pointed out both faults and beauties; and in eſtimating national genius, as well as that of particular authors, he has been careful to mark, though with candour, thoſe more peculiar blemiſhes that affect compoſition; and, where theſe have been more glaring, he has been more ſevere, and expoſed them with the greater freedom.

'By the ſtrictures which he has thus thrown out on ancient and modern genius, he wiſhes to rouſe the attention of the age to lively and elegant pleaſures. He *unfolds* the *ſources* of learning that we may drink from their fountain, and derive from thence both improvement and amuſement.

'He recommends to the young writer a chaſte elegance of language, by ſetting before him the beſt models. He recommends to readers of every rank, the moſt rational entertainment, by giving them a diſplay of the moſt ſublime, moral, and entertaining authors*.

'In drawing literary characters, he has given examples of ſome of the beſt paſſages from their works, illuſtrated with critical remarks. Theſe examples he might have enlarged with advantage; but the conciſeneſs of his plan obliged him to ſhorten them.

'He has alſo drawn frequent compariſons between ſeveral firſt-rate authors, both ancient and modern; and, in order to enliven the more didactic part of the Work, he has briefly delineated their characters.

'The author pretends not to ſay that the ſubject of the Eſſays is entirely new: claſſical criticiſm is as ancient as the days of Ariſtotle. Obſervations on authors, language, and compoſition have been made, and, probably, will be made, by many ingenious and learned writers.

'* He has attended alſo to the uſual reading of ladies, ſuch as moral tales, fables, novels, hiſtory, and plays, and given them ample directions.'

But

But any one, or more of them, however eminent, cannot preclude others from walking in the ſame field. If one has not the ſtrength and valour of Achilles, he may have the wary and circumſpect eye of Ulyſſes; if he is not deep and profound, he may be intelligent, perſpicuous, and entertaining.

'Upon the whole, the Author flatters himſelf that theſe Sketches may be found to contain more various and more curious matter than any other volume of the ſame ſize, and the ſame ſubject, in the Engliſh language. The plan is entirely new, and exhibits in one connected ſeries, an uncommon variety of literary information. There is hardly an author of eminence, in any language, ancient or modern, but is noticed and characteriſed in the preſent work: conſequently, in order to guide the judgment and form the taſte in reading, the Author preſumes to recommend it as an inſtructive and (he hopes) an agreeable companion to the young ſcholar, or even the more advanced and enlightened ſtudent. The orator, the poet, the hiſtorian, the philoſopher, may all find, in theſe pages, ſomething either to inſtruct or to amuſe them.

'For the convenience of the reader there is ſubjoined an alphabetical liſt of about four hundred authors, in different languages, deſcribed or mentioned in the work.'

The account of this author's life, prefixed to the volume, contains nothing intereſting nor memorable. From the nurſery he went to ſchool—wrote verſes—was an uſher at one country ſchool, and elected maſter of another—fell in love—was jilted—reſigned his place—went to Edinburgh—taught languages, and toiled for printers and bookſellers. Such are the *ſimple annals* of this poor author, who ſeems never to have emerged from obſcurity, nor to have become ſufficiently eminent to be certain that not only 'the young ſcholar,' but 'even the more advanced and enlightened ſtudent,' would ſubmit to have their judgment guided and their taſte formed by his deciſions.

These Eſſays are properly called Sketches, as the author ſkims the ſurface of ſcience and human knowlege and acquirements in a moſt rapid manner. Mr. Barry's picture of the progreſs of civilization, at the Adelphi, tells the ſtory of the gradations of reaſon and ſcience more in detail, perhaps, than this whole volume: but the work will point out to young ſtudents what books to read, and will tell ladies what thoſe books contain, without reading them.

In the courſe of about 180 pages, we have the outline of the hiſtory of Oriental, Grecian, Roman, Italian, Portugueſe, Spaniſh, French, German, Engliſh, and Scotch literature; with the lives and characters of individual writers of the greateſt eminence in theſe ſeveral countries. Mr. Alves's account of the Greek and Roman claſſics is ſpirited, and in general accurate; and, though given in the abſtract, it will afford Tiros much information with very little trouble. Some of

of the characters of antient writers are well drawn. With those of Cæsar and Cornelius Nepos we shall present our readers:

'Simplicity of style seems to have been the distinguishing characteristic of the Ciceronian age. Besides its two principal poets, Lucretius and Catullus; its historians shew an excellent example in this respect. In Cæsar's Commentaries, and Nepos's Lives, though written in the plainest style imaginable, there is a beautiful simplicity, both in the thought and expression, that cannot fail to please a just taste, upon an attentive perusal. The manner, indeed, of these writings does not strike at first; as being divested of that pomp of language, which other historians studiously affect, in order to gain upon the reader.

'Cornelius Nepos writes always in a brief impartial manner; his candour and sincerity are truly valuable; and his style somewhat more raised than the other's.

'But Cæsar possesses an excellence of an higher kind; he writes his own history, yet with the utmost modesty; talks of himself in the third person with the greatest indifference: praises nothing he does; is never bitter or severe against his enemies: a strong and almost singular example of a great mind, neither admiring its own performances, nor condemning those of others; but, as intent on high designs, and capable of still greater exertions, always modest, grave, cool, and dispassionate.'

Of modern writers, Mr. A.'s opinions will perhaps be sometimes disputed. In speaking of Metastasio, for instance, who that is well acquainted with the Italian language, and with the writings of that exquisite poet, would subscribe to our author's harsh sentence, when he says that, 'with all his dramatic powers, he is too *affected* to have the reputation of a classical writer; he seems more attentive to the position or sound of words, than the force or nature of his thoughts; he is descriptive rather than pathetic; and, like the French writers, more declamatory than natural?' Who, that is qualified to judge, will not say, on reading this passage, that Mr. Alves either did not understand Italian, or had a bad taste*? He seems wholly to have forgotten that Metastasio's dramas were all written for music, not declamation; and he has never perhaps felt, heard, nor understood, that *pathos* is one of this lyric poet's chief characteristics; who, so far from resembling French tragic writers in long *declamatory* speeches, carries on his dialogues in so rapid a manner, that the business of his drama is never impeded, except by the necessary introduction of the airs which terminate each scene. The next period manifestly proves Mr. A. to be igno-

* The inaccurate manner in which the quotations from Dante and Tasso are printed sufficiently manifest ignorance of the Italian language.

rant

rant of the ſubject on which he is writing, when he tells us that Metaſtaſio 'has endeavoured, but improperly, to turn pieces of ſcripture into poetry; and adapt them, in the way of dialogue, for ſtage-repreſentation. But this ſeems rather an unnatural, as well as an impious endeavour; or, at leaſt degrades the ſubject it pretends to embelliſh.' Did Mr. A. never hear of oratorios, nor in what manner they are performed? Metaſtaſio's ſacred dramas have never been *acted* like ſecular dramas, but ſung generally in churches, ſtationary, like other eccleſiaſtical muſic.

As to the *impiety* with which he charges Metaſtaſio for turning pieces of ſcripture into poetry, the accuſation, if well founded, would fall equally on the verſifiers of the Pſalms:—but Metaſtaſio has treated ſacred ſubjects with ſo much reverence and dignity, that the moſt devout and orthodox Chriſtians have equally admired his genius and his piety.

With ſimilar injuſtice and want of knowlege, our author fancies he can diſcover ſome ſtrokes of humour in Goldoni's comedies 'not ſo delicate and chaſte as could be wiſhed.' The Italian comic operas, though too often ſinking to buffoonery and farce for the natives of other countries, are never diſguſted by ſcenes, expreſſions, or alluſions, that border on impurity or indelicacy.

All that Mr. A. has ventured to write on the languages and literature of Spain and Portugal ſeems to be wholly *gueſs-work*. He frequently *hazards* opinions on no other foundation than conjecture. Of this kind is the aſſertion that "Prince Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table" was 'the firſt effort at a ſerious romance in *England*, and perhaps in Europe.' Now it has been ſettled by that excellent critic Mr. Tyrwhitt, in his admirable edition of Chaucer's Canterbury Tales, that *Le Brut*, and afterward *Le Mort Arthur*, taken from it, were both written in *French* verſe, from Geoffry of Monmouth's Latin fabulous hiſtory of Britain.

After having mentioned 'the ſplendid edition of Don Quixote, lately publiſhed at Madrid, by order of the Court, as a proof that literature in Spain has become a national concern,' the author ſhould not have neglected to inform his readers of the magnificent edition of SALLUST, tranſlated into Spaniſh, and publiſhed with the original text, by the late Don Gabriel, brother to the preſent king; one of the moſt beautiful ſpecimens of typography of the preſent century.

In the chapter on *Spaniſh Romances*, we find opinions to which we can by no means ſubſcribe. After having properly ſtyled Don Quixote a burleſque-ſatiric romance, and Gil Blas a humorous ſatiric romance, Mr. Alves ſays: 'Among the French, as eminent in this way, may be reckoned Marivaux and

and Crebillon; as alſo Marmontel, although the latter is rather too ſerious, and often fantaſtical, to be claſſed among the good ſatiric romancers; but they have all borrowed light from the Spaniards in this ſpecies of writing.' Now we can ſee no reſemblance, in the ſtyle or kind of romance, between the novels of Le Sage and thoſe of Marivaux and Crebillon; and ſtill leſs between the *tales* of Marmontel and thoſe written on the Spaniſh model. We muſt alſo, in juſtice to the noveliſt laſt-mentioned, put in our *caveat* againſt the charge of his being 'too ſerious, and often *fantaſtical*, to be claſſed among the good ſatiric romancers.' We believe that this ingenious author had no idea of ſatire in writing his tales.

Mr. A. characterizes many of the French writers with tolerable accuracy: but, in ſpeaking of the dramatic productions of that nation, we think that his remarks are ſuperficial and unjuſt. Criticiſm and the rules of the drama grew up and were eſtabliſhed in France earlier than in England. The taſte in one country was formed by *rule*, and in the other by pure *genius*. We like not the French regularity, long ſpeeches, and declamation; yet the learned of all countries are partial to the beſt tragedies of Corneille, Racine, and Voltaire. Our exquiſite Shakſpeare pleaſes and will ever pleaſe Engliſhmen, in ſpite of his ignorance or contempt of the unities, and all his wildneſs, puns, and abſurdities, to which we are leſs blind than *habituated*. There never was a writer ſo truly *inimitable* in every ſenſe of the word as Shakſpeare. We deſpair of ever ſeeing his beauties equalled, and his defects who will dare to imitate? Though we yawn at a French tragedy, we muſt laugh at their *comedy*; and all Europe ſeems unanimous, except Mr. Alves, in allowing their *ſock* to be well made, and worn with grace:—but the merit of no French comic writer ſeems to have come to his knowlege except that of Moliere.

In characterizing our Engliſh dramatiſts, as Mr. A. is profeſſedly pointing out the beſt road for juvenile readers to travel, we rather wonder at his partiality to Beaumont and Fletcher, when he ſays, 'the *only* objection to them is, that they are not ſo happy as could be wiſhed, in the conduct of their plots; and ſome of their characters ſeem abſurd, extravagant, and too much out of nature.' This is *not* all. There is an objection to moſt of the joint productions of thoſe twin writers, of much more conſequence than defects of plot and character. There is more obſcenity, more groſs and unpleaſant impurities of language and ſentiment, in their productions, than in thoſe of the moſt licentious pieces of Charles the Second's revelling reign;—we cannot, with this author, call it a '*woeful* period of our hiſtory.'

The manner in which this decisive literary historian treats Dryden and Pope seems to border on pertness and arrogance. Neither of these great poets had the good fortune to be born north of the Tweed: a circumstance highly favourable to 'Lord Kelly, celebrated (according to Mr. A.) all over Europe for a bold and spirited style of music *peculiarly his own.*' Now though this musical and bacchanalian Lord is allowed by professors to have possessed more genius, fire, and knowlege of music than any dilettante in our island, yet his style was not his own, but that of the elder Stamitz, his master, which he imitated well; yet his fame, we fear, has not extended over Europe south of London, nor far north of Edinburgh.

The merit of Scotch philosophers, historians, poets, and physicians, is displayed by our author with no less accuracy than zeal: but we are unable to discover how 'Dr. Pitcairn, born at Edinburgh, Dec. 1652,' could have been 'physician to James and Charles I.' unless in a pre-existent state.

We now come to our author's '*Literary Essays, containing comparisons and illustrations of antient and modern authors; with various other subjects of literature.*' These amount to eighteen. The first—*Milton, Shakspeare, Homer, and Virgil compared*—begins with a declaration of war against Dr. Johnson, of which we shall take some notice hereafter. The 2d essay contains *illustrations of Homer, concluding with remarks on Hesiod.* The 3d, *illustrations on Virgil, concluding with remarks on Lucretius.* Essay 4. *Illustrations on the satires and epistles of Horace*, in which the several merits of that most admirable classic are pointed out with no vulgar taste and discrimination. Essay 5. *Herodotus and Livy compared.* In this paper, if the author had stopped after having said that 'Herodotus was the most antient of all historians if we except the sacred,' his assertion would not have been disputed: but, when he adds, 'and the most antient of all profane writers except Hesiod and Homer,' he forgot the long list of Greek lyric poets given in Fabricius, not only anterior to the time of Herodotus, but even to that of Homer and Hesiod. Among those that preceded Herodotus, are enumerated Terpander, Alcæus, Alemon, Tyrtæus, Anacreon, Pindar, Sappho, Pythagoras, and Æsop. Essay 6. *Thucydides, Sallust, and Tacitus compared.* The essayist should have mentioned Smith's translation of Thucydides, as well as that of Hobbes. While Mr. Alves's critical remarks and encomiums are confined to antient authors, they are generally candid, judicious, and in good taste: but, in the subsequent essays, his opinions seem tinctured with national prejudice and partiality. His 14th essay, however, *on the sublime and pathetic of the Holy Scriptures*,

Scriptures, and of their superiority to all human compositions, is written with great force, reverence, and zeal. The friends of our religion will see with pleasure this subject treated in a manner equally free from fanaticism and bigotry, by a volunteer in theology.

In essay 15, speaking of different kinds of style, it is easy to perceive that the cold, unadorned, Calvinistical style of the inhabitants of North Britain is greatly preferred by our author to the glowing, polished, metaphysical style of some of the natives of the more southern parts of the island.

Throughout these essays, the author seizes every opportunity of manifesting an implacable hatred of Dr. Johnson, against whom the 18th essay is a most furious Philippic; which he calls *a character of Dr. Johnson*:

'To draw even a sketch of this character is extremely difficult *; so mixed and rude an original is scarcely to be found; and from this strange mixture in his character, it is extremely difficult to assign its leading features.

'As a critic and drawer of characters, in which he so much delights, and has got so much fame, he affects caricatura grotesque, and the terrible, tragic manner of Salvator Rosa. He is bold and imperious, and dashes, with severity and gloom, the greatest part of his portraits. Sometimes one passion, sometimes another predominates, and holds the pencil to the delineation. Prejudice, ill-nature, whim, vanity, envy, all take their turns.

'One principle, however, seems to reign through the whole, and to prevail on all occasions, to wit †, a certain air of arrogance and surly disdain, as if the author was infinitely above those of whom he writes.

'He was a Diogenes in criticism, always querulous and grumbling; a Scaliger, whimsical and vain; a Zoilus, abusing a Shakespeare, a Milton, or a Gray; a finder of faults in his cotemporaries from envy; snarling and backbiting them without mercy, and pouring out against them incessant floods of gall, that shewed how much his heart was torn ‡ with ever-gnawing envy, and the most fiery jealousy.

'He is said to be religious; but he was rather superstitious, and for which some of his friends were pleased to call him one of the best of men, as well as one of the greatest geniuses.

'* It is difficult to avoid indignation, or to express it without severity. To the friends and admirers of Dr. Johnson, the author can only offer, as his apology, the unjust and abusive attack made by the Doctor upon most, if not all the best of our English poets, with a view, as it would appear, to humble all merit except his own, and strike to the dust the noblest monuments of human genius.'

'† This is particularly visible in his Lives of the English poets.'

'‡ See his account of Gray, Shenstone, Lyttelton, Hammond, &c. but the tender Hammond he has abused on account of his connection with Chesterfield, whom the Doctor hated.'

'And, his religion, however regular he might have been in the obſervance of its forms, or however punctual in his devotions, did not certainly manifeſt itſelf either in his heart or life; and he was a ſtrong inſtance how much a man may deceive himſelf as well as others in this reſpect.

'The leading features, however, ſeem to have been vanity, envy, and an auſtere kind of arrogance that led him to deſpiſe and abuſe, not only equal or inferior, but far ſuperior merit to his own.

'Upon the whole, Dr. Johnſon's merit is only to be conſidered apart from his faults, if it is at all poſſible to ſeparate them. His merit, as a man of genius, was conſpicuous where it ſhone by itſelf, and untainted by the peculiarities and infirmities of his diſpoſition.

'As author of the Rambler and Idler, and the Prince of Abyſſinia, he muſt be always mentioned with praiſe, as here his genius appears to moſt advantage, and with feweſt of his faults. He was then a young writer, and ſhewed not much of that ſevere arrogance which afterwards marked, ſo ſtrongly, both his literary and philoſophical effuſions.

'A certain ſublimity, as well as melancholy of imagination, marks even his earlieſt productions. He was more ſtruck with the terrible and tragic than the beautiful or gay. In nature he always deſcribed the moſt awful or ſolemn ſcenes; and in the moral world he took moſt delight in the recital of human miſery, the fall of greatneſs, the diſappointments of ambition, or misfortunes from levity or extravagance in the lower ſpheres of life.

'His ſtyle was even then ſtiff and majeſtic; but it was alſo ſtrong and nervous, and full of that pompous and ſplendid eloquence which, at firſt ſight, is ſo generally agreeable.

'The chief merit of the Rambler ſeems to be its moral tendency, its juſt remarks on human life in general, and its excellent delineations of ſome particular characters. His views of life are exhibited in affecting attitudes, that both intereſt and inſtruct; and they are ſo natural, though ſet off by his peculiar manner, that they both reach the heart, and delight the imagination.

'In this work he has been imitated by Dr. Hawkeſworth in the Adventurer, with a good deal of his manner, but little of his ſtiffneſs or pompoſity. Theſe two books, indeed, deſerve to be read on every account, as they are entertaining, moral, and full of character. The Adventurer, though inferior in ſome reſpects to the other, is perhaps more lively, humorous, and more in the manner of Addiſon.

'The ſimilarity betwixt them is accounted for by Hawkeſworth's being the conſtant companion, diſciple, and humble admirer of Dr. Johnſon.

'His immoderate uſe of words of Latin derivation is affected; they are often far-fetched, and give an air of pedantry rather than of elegance to his ſtyle. Suavity, perſpicacity, efflorescence, fugacity, hilarity, are words peculiar to this writer, and wear too foreign an air to appear natural in our language. Corruſcations or ſcintillations of wit, ebullitions of decency, rotundity of periods, and ſuch like, are all favourite expreſſions with him, and are too often repeated to be in general pleaſing.

'As

'As an inſtance of this affected ſtyle, take the following out of many from the Rambler:

"It is common for thoſe who have never accuſtomed themſelves to the labour of inquiry, nor invigorated their confidence by any conqueſts over difficulty, to ſleep in the gloomy quieſcence of aſtoniſhment, without any effort to animate languor, or diſpel obſcurity."

'Is not this highly turgid and unnatural? It were endleſs to mention inſtances which abound every where in this author; but is it not proper to condemn ſuch a mode of writing as an innovation in the proſe part of our language, tending to corrupt and debaſe it from its original purity?

'As compiler of the Dictionary that goes under his name, he merits the praiſe of diligence at leaſt. And, though it is not free of faults, particularly erroneous or uſeleſs definitions, and ſeveral omiſſions, it is at the ſame time an amazing work to be executed by one man, and that too at intervals, amidſt ſickneſs and other avocations. But he was a laborious genius that worked with vigour and haſte, and did much in a ſhort time. He had alſo a moſt tenacious memory, and wide obſervation, that particularly fitted him for a lexicographer. His life has been written with great induſtry by Sir John Hawkins, Mr. Boſwell, and others; no late author has been ſpoken of with more eclat, but we cannot help thinking, that like ſome other modern writers, he has obtained a fame and reputation rather above his merits.'

The precept, *de mortuis nil niſi bonum*, is here wholly reverſed. There is no great heroiſm in attacking a dead foe. When living, the ſecret author of Lexiphanes, and the anonymous abettors of Mr. Wilkes in the newſpapers, were Johnſon's chief aſſailants, till the publication of his Tour to the Hebrides; in which the pleaſantries on the North Britons and their country have never been forgiven. Since his deceaſe, the great moraliſt and philologer has had the number of his enemies increaſed by the imprudence and want of delicacy of his biographers; who, unwarrantably divulging his private opinions of living characters, have provoked many perſons to hoſtilities, on the principle of ſelf-defence.

The diſpute between Mr. A. and Dr. J. concerning the merit of authors is only the opinion of one writer oppoſed to that of another; and the whole controverſy will probably be reduced to this ſimple queſtion: which is the moſt reſpectable writer, and the moſt able critic and judge, Dr. Johnſon or Mr. Alves? We were never partial to Dr. Johnſon's politics, nor to his prejudices, and we have frequently combated his opinions: but we ever muſt allow him to have been a great moral writer, and a man of genius, learning, probity, and piety. Where his prejudices do not operate, his criticiſms are ſo deep, juſt, and original, that in all probability they will long guide the public taſte; which they are the more likely to do, as he muſt ever be ranked himſelf among our proſe writers of the firſt claſs: nor can

he with juſtice be denied a diſtinguiſhed place among our poets, of the ſecond claſs, at leaſt.

Our honeſt North Briton very unwillingly allows the traveller to the Hebrides, and the denouncer of Oſſian, any other merit than that of diligence as a lexicographer: but, if (like the antient Kings of Egypt,) Johnſon after his deceaſe were to be tried for high crimes and miſdemeanors againſt the *republic of letters*, in empannelling a jury, perhaps Wilkites (of firſt principles) and Scotſmen ſhould be challenged.

We cannot, in our judicial capacity, diſmiſs Mr. Alves without obſerving that he, who ſo freely cenſured the ſtyle of ſome modern writers of high rank, without even ſparing Cæſar and Cicero among the antients, (ſee p. 277,) was frequently guilty of Scotticiſms, colloquial barbariſms, and other inaccuracies, in the very language in which he cenſured others. We have 'wide *off* (for *of*) the truth.' *Withal*, frequently; a word which has ſeldom been uſed by any good Engliſh writer during the preſent century. 'As inferior as the ſound of a pipe to the ſound of an organ.' Now an organ being entirely compoſed of *pipes*, we ſuppoſe the author meant, as inferior as the ſound of a *ſingle* pipe to that of a *full organ*—which would be violent exaggeration. 'In regard *of* invention,' for *to*.—'Total ſilence *of* Homer,' for *about* or *concerning* Homer.—*Pled* for *pleaded*. *Perſcriptive* for preſcriptive. *Beſides* for except. '*In* ſuch a degree,' for *to* ſuch a degree. 'We have *only but* (for nothing but) ſketches.' *Thereafter*, for after this. '*Along* with her huſband,' for *jointly* with her huſband. 'Neither can we ſee *almoſt* any thing;' 'but wit, if *one* has any, will ſhine out but *one* way:' here we have the Galliciſm *one* (*on*) as a pronoun, and *one* uſed numerically, in the ſame period. 'Pretty *much* equal,' for pretty equal, &c.

For typographical errors, in a poſthumous work, the author is not accountable; and perhaps, if Mr. Alves had not treated men greatly his ſuperiors in genius and judgment, with that 'certain air of arrogance and ſurly diſdain,' 'as if he *was* infinitely above thoſe of whom he writes,' of which he accuſes Dr. Johnſon in his Lives of the Engliſh poets, we ſhould have made leſs uſe of our ſpectacles in diſcovering the faults which we have already pointed out.

ART. III. *An Eſſay on the Manners and Genius of the Literary Character.* By J. D'Iſraeli. Crown 8vo. pp. 226. 4s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1795.

THE ingenious and active writer of this tract, having tried the ſtrength of his wing by compilation, fluttering from tree to tree, and finding with what facility he performed ſuch exploits,

exploits, now adventures at higher flights. He modeſtly tells us in his preface, that 'he preſents the reader with an imperfect attempt on an important topic:' for the materials deſigned for this eſſay having been accidentally deſtroyed, his ſketches are not ſo numerous as he could wiſh, and as the ſubject appears to promiſe; and that therefore they claim all the indulgence of the title. Now, if by delaying this publication he *could* have made it more perfect, we might aſk why he haſtened to the preſs? We have heard of no ſubſcription nor engagement for its appearance at any particular time; and the humility of calling his work an *Eſſay* will, we fear, have little effect on ſuch readers as recollect that Locke and Pope have condeſcended to call two of the moſt perfect productions in our language, *eſſays*; nor would the metaphyſics of the one, and the ethics of the other, have obtained pardon, if defective, from the modeſty of the title:—but De la Baumelle tells us in his little book entitled *Mes Penſées*, that "if a man has a good thing to ſay, he ſhould ſay it ſoon: or, ſo numerous are the candidates for literary fame, ſome one will be beforehand with him."

Mr. D'Iſraeli takes frequent occaſion to remind us of his *youth:* but, when we obſerve the firmneſs and deciſion with which he ſpeaks on moſt ſubjects, this circumſtance may not render his readers more charitable, and more ready to ſubſcribe to his opinions on very deep and important ſubjects. Chriſtians and Deiſts will perhaps equally conſtrue into flippancy his having reſolved impiety and blaſphemy into a matter of *taſte* *, and will condemn the levity with which he treats the profound theologian Clarke, and the pious moraliſt Johnſon, for imagining that the thoughts which Milton has given to Satan "are ſuch as no obſervation of character can juſtify, becauſe no good man would willingly permit them to paſs, however tranſiently, through his own mind." It was a want of taſte perhaps in Milton himſelf, that put ſuch impious ſentiments into the mouth of Satan, and which made him tire his moſt determined and perſevering admirers with Free-will and Predeſtination. To draw the moſt atrocious character in a drama, ſuch as Iago, for inſtance, throws no diſgrace on the poet: but impiety and blaſphemy would not be borne on our ſtage. Milton, however, was a truly pious man, who has breathed in his works the moſt ſublime and reverential ſentiments of the Supreme Being, and has deſcribed and defended virtue and morality in the ſtrongeſt reaſoning and moſt glowing colours of any one of our poets: ſo that the language of Satan ſeems to have flowed from no licentious intention in the writer.

* See Addenda, p. xxiii.

There are, however, many ingenious and lively thoughts in this eſſay, and proofs of extenſive reading and acute obſervation. Though we are not always of the ſame opinion, we ſhall not often diſpute the author's principles. Yet, as critics, it becomes our duty to point out inaccuracies of aſſertion, as well as of language, which perhaps have eſcaped the author through precipitancy of publication.

The author has treated his ſubject under the following heads: Chap. I. *Of literary men.* II. *Of authors.* III. *Men of letters.* IV. *The characteriſtics of a youth of genius.* V. *Of the domeſtic life of a man of genius.* VI. *Of literary ſolitude.* VII. *On the meditations and converſations of men of genius.* VIII. *Men of genius limited in their art.* IX. *Of the infirmities and defects of men of genius.* X. *Of literary friendſhips and enmities.* XI. *The characters of writers not diſcoverable in their writings.* XII. *Of ſome private advantages which induce men of letters to become authors.* XIII. *Of the utility of authors to individuals.* XIV. *Of the political influence of authors.* XV. *On an academy of polite literature, penſions, prizes.*

The firſt four chapters are written with that kind of ſpirit which attaches a reader. The 5th contains little perſpicacity, and few moral diſcoveries. In chap. VI. the author deſcribes the love of ſolitude, its neceſſity to ſome ſtudious men, and its irkſomeneſs to others, with ſuch equal force and illuſtration, that we are unable to diſcover which he thinks right, or moſt eligible.

The VIIth and VIIIth chapters ſeem to call for little more than verbal criticiſm, which precipitate publication never fails to require. An abridgment of Chap. IX. we ſhall preſent to our readers as no unfavourable ſpecimen of the work *.

'The modes of life of a man of genius are often tinctured with eccentricity and enthuſiaſm. Theſe are in an eternal conflict with the uſages of common life. His occupations, his amuſements, and his ardour, are diſcordant to daily purſuits, and prudential habits. It is the characteriſtic of genius to diſplay no talent to ordinary men; and

* In a note, p. 107. ſpeaking of a *literary* fund eſtabliſhed in attic London, for which the claimants were too many and the ſubſcribers too few, he tells us that 'it has died away; while the *muſical* fund is patronized by the Great, which ſeems to prove that they have finer ears than underſtandings.' Juſtice requires that we ſhould exculpate 'the Great' from the charge of munificence and conſtancy towards the muſical fund: for they have left the ſociety, or the ſociety has left them. The late benefits for this charity (which was not originally a *royal* eſtabliſhment,) have been unpatronized by all the Great Directors; and we are told that they have been productive of no enviable ſum to the fund. Indeed, it ſeems as if none of the Great had been conſtant in zeal for this inſtitution, except their Majeſties.

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it is unjuſt to cenſure the latter when they conſider him as born for no human purpoſe. Their pleaſures and their ſorrows are not his pleaſures and his ſorrows. He often appears to ſlumber in diſhonourable eaſe, while his days are paſſed in labours, more conſtant and more painful than thoſe of the manufacturer. The world is not always aware that to meditate, to compoſe, and even to converſe with ſome, are great labours; and as Hawkeſworth obſerves, "that wearineſs may be contracted in an arm chair."

'Such men are alſo cenſured for an irritability of diſpoſition. Many reaſons might apologize for theſe unhappy variations of humour. The occupation of making a great name, is, perhaps, more anxious and precarious than that of making a great fortune. We ſympathiſe with the merchant when he communicates melancholy to the ſocial circle in conſequence of a bankruptcy, or when he feels the elation of proſperity at the ſucceſs of a vaſt ſpeculation. The author is not leſs immerſed in cares, or agitated by ſucceſs, for literature has it's bankruptcies and it's ſpeculations.

'The anxieties and diſappointments of an author, even of the moſt ſucceſsful, are incalculable. If he is learned, learning is the torment of unquenchable thirſt, and his elaborate work is expoſed to the accidental recollection of an inferior mind, as well as the fatal omiſſions of wearied vigilance. If he excels in the magic of diction, and the graces of fancy, his path is ſtrewed with roſes, but his feet bleed on inviſible yet piercing thorns. Rouſſeau has given a glowing deſcription of the ceaſeleſs inquietudes by which he acquired ſkill in the arts of compoſition; and has ſaid, that with whatever talent a man may be born, the art of writing is not eaſily obtained.'—

'It is obſerved by M. La Harpe (an author by profeſſion) that as it has been proved there are ſome maladies peculiar to artiſts, there are alſo ſorrows which are peculiar to them; and which the world can neither pity nor ſoften, becauſe it cannot have their conceptions. We read not without a melancholy emotion, the querulous expreſſions of men of genius. We have a little catalogue *de calamitate Litteratorum*; we might *add* a volume by the *addition* of moſt of our own authors.'—

'The votaries of the arts and ſciences are called by Cicero, Heroes of Peace; their labours, their dangers, and their intrepidity, make them heroes; but peace is rarely the ornament of their feveriſh exiſtence.'—

'Some are now only agreeable, who might have been great writers, had their application to ſtudy, and the modes of their life been different. In Mr. Greaves' lively recollections of his friend Shenſtone, are ſome judicious obſervations on this ſubject. He has drawn a compariſon between the elevated abilities of Gray, and the humble talents of Shenſtone: and he has eſſayed to ſhew, that it was the accidental circumſtances of Gray's place of birth, education, his admittance into ſome of the beſt circles, and his aſſiduous application to ſcience, which gave him that ſuperiority over the indolence, the retirement, and the inertion of a want of patronage, which made Shenſtone, as Gray familiarly ſaid, "hop round his walks" like a bird in a ſtring.'—

'Men of genius are often reverenced only where they are known by their writings. In the romance of life they are divinities, in it's

hiſtory they are men. From errors of the mind, and derelictions of the heart, they may not be exempt; theſe are perceived by their acquaintance, who can often diſcern only theſe qualities. The defects of great men are the conſolation of the dunces.'—

'For their foibles it appears more difficult to account than for their vices; for a violent paſſion depends on its direction to become either excellence or depravity; but why their exalted mind ſhould not preſerve them from the imbecilities of fools, appears a mere caprice of nature. A curious liſt may be formed of

"Fears of the brave and follies of the wiſe." *Johnſon.*

In the note underneath I have thrown together a few facts which may be paſſed over by thoſe who have no taſte for literary anecdotes *.

'But it is alſo neceſſary to acknowledge, that men of genius are often unjuſtly reproached with foibles. The ſports of a vacant mind, are miſunderſtood as follies. The ſimplicity of truth may appear vanity, and the conſciouſneſs of ſuperiority, envy. Nothing is more uſual than our ſurpriſe at ſome great writer or artiſt contemning the labours of another, whom the public cheriſh with equal approbation. We place it to the account of his envy, but perhaps this opinion is erroneous, and claims a conciſe inveſtigation.

'Every ſuperior writer has a MANNER of his own, with which he has been long converſant, and too often inclines to judge of the merit of a performance by the degree it attains of his favourite manner. He errs, becauſe impartial men of taſte are addicted to no manner, but love whatever is exquiſite. We often ſee readers draw their degree of comparative merit from the manner of their favourite author; an author does the ſame; that is, he draws it from himſelf. Such a partial ſtandard of taſte is erroneous; but it is more excuſable in the author than in the reader.

'* Voiture was the ſon of a vintner, and like our Prior, was ſo mortified whenever reminded of his original occupation, that it was ſaid of him, that wine which cheared the heart of all men, ſickened that of Voiture. Rouſſeau, the poet, was the ſon of a cobler; and when his honeſt parent waited at the door of the theatre, to embrace his ſon on the ſucceſs of his firſt piece, the inhuman poet repulſed the venerable father with inſult and contempt. Akenſide ever conſidered his lameneſs as an unſupportable misfortune, ſince it continually reminded him of his origin, being occaſioned by the fall of a cleaver from one of his father's blocks, a reſpectable butcher. Milton delighted in contemplating his own perſon, and the engraver not having reached our ſublime bard's "ideal grace," he has pointed his indignation in four iambics. Among the complaints of Pope, is that of "the pictured ſhape." Even the ſtrong-minded Johnſon would not be painted "blinking Sam." Mr. Boſwell tells us that Goldſmith attempted to ſhew his agility to be ſuperior to the dancing of an ape, whoſe praiſe had occaſioned him a fit of jealouſy, but he failed in imitating his rival. The inſcription under Boileau's portrait, deſcribing his character with laviſh panegyric, and a preference to Juvenal and Horace, is unfortunately known to have been written by himſelf.'

'This obſervation will ſerve to explain ſeveral curious phenomena in literature. The witty Cowley deſpiſed the natural Chaucer; the claſſical Boileau, the rough ſublimity of Crebillon; the forcible Corneille, the tender Racine; the affected Marivaux, the familiar Moliere; the artificial Gray, the ſimple Shenſtone. Each alike judged by that peculiar manner he had long formed. In a free converſation they might have contemned each other; and a dunce, who had liſtened without taſte or underſtanding, if he had been a haberdaſher in anecdotes, would have haſtened to repoſit in his warehouſe of literary falſities, a long declamation on the vanity and envy of theſe great men.'—

'It has long been acknowledged that every work of merit, the more it is examined, the greater the merit will appear. The moſt maſterly touches, and the reſerved graces, which form the pride of the artiſt, are not obſervable till after a familiar and conſtant meditation. What is moſt refined is leaſt obvious; and to ſome muſt remain unperceived for ever.'—

'But aſcending from theſe elaborate ſtrokes in compoſition, to the views and deſigns of an author, the more profound and extenſive theſe are, the more they elude the reader's apprehenſion. I refine not too much when I ſay, that the author is conſcious of *beauties*, that *are not in his compoſition*. The happieſt writers are compelled to ſee ſome of their moſt magnificent ideas float along the immenſity of mind, beyond the feeble graſp of expreſſion. Compare the ſtate of the author with that of the reader; how copious and overflowing is the mind of the one to the other; how more ſenſibly alive to a variety of exquiſite ſtrokes which the other has not yet perceived; the author is familiar with every part, and the reader has but a vague notion of the whole. How many noble conceptions of Rouſſeau are not yet maſtered! How many profound reflections of Monteſquieu are not yet underſtood! How many ſubtile leſſons are yet in Locke, which no preceptor can teach!

'Such, among others, are the reaſons which may induce an author to expreſs himſelf in language which may ſound like vanity. To be admired, is the noble ſimplicity of the ancients, (imitated by a few elevated minds among the moderns) in expreſſing with ardour the conſciouſneſs of genius. We are not more diſpleaſed with Dryden than with Cicero, when he acquaints us of the great things he has done, and thoſe he purpoſes to do. Modern modeſty might, perhaps, to ſome be more engaging, if it were modeſty; but our artificial bluſhes are like the ladies' temporary rouge, ever ready to colour the face on any occaſion. Some will not place their names to their books, yet prefix it to their advertiſements; others pretend to be the editors of their own works; ſome compliment themſelves in the third perſon; and many, concealed under the ſhade of anonymous criticiſm, form panegyrics, as elaborate and long as Pliny's on Trajan, of their works and themſelves; yet, in a converſation, ſtart at a compliment, and quarrel at a quotation. Such modeſt authors reſemble *certain* ladies, who in *public* are equally celebrated for the coldeſt chaſtity.

'Conſciouſneſs of merit characteriſes men of genius; but it is to be lamented that the illuſions of ſelf-love are not diſtinguiſhable from the

the realities of conſciouſneſs. Yet if we were to take from ſome their pride of exultation, we annihilate the germ of their excellence. The perſuaſion of a juſt poſterity ſmoothed the ſleepleſs pillow, and ſpread a ſunſhine in the ſolitude of Bacon, Monteſquieu, and Newton; of Cervantes, Gray, and Milton. Men of genius anticipate their contemporaries, and know they are ſuch, long before the tardy conſent of the public.

'They have alſo been accuſed of the meaneſt adulations; it is certain that many have had the weakneſs to praiſe unworthy men, and ſome the courage to eraſe what they have written. A young writer unknown, yet languiſhing for encouragement, when he firſt finds the notice of a perſon of ſome eminence, has expreſſed himſelf in language which gratitude, a finer reaſon than reaſon itſelf, inſpired. Strongly has Milton expreſſed the ſenſations of this paſſion, "the debt immenſe of endleſs gratitude." Who ever pays an "immenſe debt" in ſmall ſums?'

Chap. X. is lively. Chap. XI. ingenious and amuſing: but the diſplay of the inconſiſtency, inſincerity, and infirmities of authors will but render careleſs readers ſceptics in the morality which they preach, and may even degrade literature itſelf. We will hope that moral writers are in earneſt, however charitable it may be to ſuppoſe that the authors of licentious books are not ſo corrupt as their writings. An antient Greek philoſopher uſed to wiſh that the hearts of authors were diaphanous, that the world might ſee their *real* contents.

At the end of our author's humiliating note, which we have juſt extracted, on the mental infirmities of writers of the firſt claſs, we could not help crying out with Gray:—*Ah, tell them, they are men!*—An exclamation equally applicable to authors and critics. Indeed, as a *contrepoiſon* to this note, which has "drawn the frailties of the moſt reſpectable authors from their dread abode," we have a long liſt of their heroic acts of friendſhip: *vide* p. 133.

In Chap. XII. where Mr. D'Iſraeli ſpeaks of the advantages which induce men of letters to become authors, and laments their paucity, he ſhould have recollected the univerſal diffuſion of learning; which has ſo much augmented the number of claimants for celebrity and reſpect, that mediocrity of abilities in writing excites no more wonder than the being a bricklayer or a carpenter; and yet whenever a poet or a writer in proſe towers above the reſt, he is not ſuffered to lie in obſcurity. Pope, Addiſon, Boileau, Voltaire, and Metaſtaſio, neither lived nor died in obſcurity.

Chap. XIII., on the utility of authors of the firſt claſs to a whole nation, is ingenious and juſt, and gives the beſt ſide of the medal. The next chapter, *on the political influence of authors*, is the reverſe. To enlighten a people, till they will ſubmit to

no government but that of terror, is not contributing to human happineſs. 'Authors (ſays Mr. D'Iſraeli) ſtand between the governors and the governed—They awaken, they terrify, they excite, they conduct the people.' If they exerciſe this power merely to incite diſcontent and inſubordination, and promiſe ſuch advantages from inſurrection and revolution as no nation ever did or can enjoy in any ſtate of civilized ſociety, they will do the people no great kindneſs. There are authors, however, from whoſe private characters morality and government have nothing to fear; and others, from whom nothing but miſchief is expected. Rational liberty and anarchy are not more hoſtile to each other, than writers of this deſcription.

Mr. D'Iſraeli complains that authors are neglected by the great; yet, if patronized, they are bribed and corrupted! Poor Johnſon was grudged his penſion, and was often abuſed for it to the time of his death; though, previouſly to his accepting it, he had been told that "it was not conferred on him for what he *was* to do, but for what he had already done." In the long and laboured eulogium in this chapter on *philoſophy*, which has lately been ſo much diſgraced by pretenders to wiſdom, it ſeems as if the author would have precluded all equivoque and danger of confounding true *philoſophers* with dreaming *theoriſts*, by aſcribing to *ſcience* what he has given to *philoſophy*.

The XVth and laſt chapter of this ſpirited tract is on a ſubject concerning which we cannot but be particularly intereſted. The author here diſcuſſes the expediency of eſtabliſhing in this country *an academy of polite literature, penſions, and prizes.* We truſt it will not be doubted that we are zealous friends to literature and its worthy votaries; and yet we cannot implicitly ſubſcribe to all the arguments here adduced in favour of this plan.

It ſeems as if the treatment of men of letters of every claſs, and the conferring of honours on them, could never be reduced to a practicable ſyſtem. Academies have been founded by princes, often at an enormous expence: but, if we may believe D'Alembert, who became the head of the moſt illuſtrious of them all, the Engliſh have contributed more to the advancement of ſcience, unpenſioned, than the natives of any other country aided by royal munificence*.

* "*Avouons même à l'honneur des lettres, que les Savans n'ont pas toujours beſoin d'être récompenſés pour ſe multiplier. Témoin l'Angleterre, à qui les Sciences doivent tant, ſans que le Gouvernement faſſe rien pour elle. Il eſt vrai que la nation les conſidere, qu'elle les reſpecte même; et cette eſpèce de récompenſe, ſuperieure à toutes les autres, eſt ſans doute le moyen le plus sûr de faire fleurir les ſciences et les arts.*"

Diſcours prelim. au 1 Tom. de l'Encyclopedie.

Our

Our *Royal Society* is an unpenſioned *academy*; and the Philoſophical Tranſactions bear voluminous and honourable teſtimony to its activity and uſe.

Another excellent French writer has well obſerved that "when men are aſſembled in a body, they generate no new ideas. If a hundred perſons meet together, each individual has only the 100th part in the idea propoſed. The moſt favourable opinion that we can form of ſuch an aſſociation is by comparing its intellectual power with that of a man of a middling capacity, who would ſtill ſurpaſs it in the conſiſtence and celerity of its tranſactions; for this plain reaſon: a man is the work of nature, and an aſſociation is the contrivance of man. All the parliaments of France united would never have produced *the Spirit of Laws*; and all the academies of that kingdom would never have compoſed the tragedy of *Athalia*. It is doubtleſs for this reaſon that a ſociety is called a *body* and not a *ſoul*; and when we talk of *l'Eſprit du corps*, we mean the worſt kind of *ſpirit**."

The excluſive royal patronage of painting and muſic in our country is cenſured by Mr. D'I. becauſe general literature has been neglected: but learning has its premiums in our univerſities and church eſtabliſhments. France, in the moſt ſplendid period of Louis XIV.'s munificence, could not penſion *all* her men of genius and talents.

It ſeems as if affluent readers, and the collectors and poſſeſſors of great libraries, ſhould ſubſcribe liberally to a fund for the ſupport of indigent authors; and the lovers of painting, and collectors of pictures, to one for the ſupport of artiſts: as muſical profeſſors and lovers of their art have long done to that for decayed muſicians and their families. We perfectly agree with the author that premiums for excellence, in every department of literature, would be admirable *ſtimuli* to labour and ſtudy.

To conclude: though we do not regard this work as a *perfect monſter*, we are ready to allow it a conſiderable ſhare of merit. As to the verbal criticiſms, with which we threatened the author, though they amount to upwards of 20, ſome typographical, and ſome, we fear, *auto*graphical, as Mr. D'I. pleads indiſpoſition while the volume was in the preſs, we ſhall recommend them to his own reſearch and correction for a future edition, and terminate this article with only one additional obſervation:

How often have we heard it ſaid of an abſent friend or acquaintance, "what an agreeable man he would be, if any one had the courage to tell him of ſome defect in his carriage or conduct, of which he himſelf is ignorant?" We rude Re-

* *Journal Politique du Compte Rivarole.*

viewers

viewers are obliged to take on ourselves this perilous and offensive task, of pointing out the faults and imperfections of authors, which their friends dare not do;—and we think it our duty to whisper to Mr. D'I., that he would be a much more agreeable writer, if he did not, at so early a period of his literary life and importance, erect himself into a censor-general, and decide so *peremptorily* on the merits of men whose fame has been long established. It seems as if a young author, who commences with criticism on any writings except his own, began at the wrong end of the alphabet; forgetting the precept of Pope, who says:

> "Let such teach others who themselves excel,
> And censure freely who have written well."

ART. IV. *Official Letters to the Honourable American Congress*, written during the War between the United Colonies and Great Britain, by his Excellency George Washington, Commander in Chief of the Continental Forces, now President of the United States. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 748. 12s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1795.

IT may perhaps be hazarded as a general remark, that great men are commonly distinguished by a peculiar simplicity of style. Cæsar wrote the history of his wars almost without a metaphor: Franklin, whether he wrote as a philosopher, as a moralist, or as a politician, always expressed himself with a luminous and dignified simplicity; and this is eminently the literary character of the official letters of Washington, here presented to the public. In this view, they afford an excellent specimen of the proper style for letters or papers on public transactions. They are chiefly valuable on account of the importance of the affairs on which they were written, and for the abundance of information which they afford respecting their progress and termination; and in this view their value is inestimable. They cast light on the history of the American war, which could not be derived from any other source; they exhibit a most interesting and wonderful example of the firm intrepidity with which a great and honest mind, engaged in a noble cause, can struggle with difficulties and at last overcome them; and at the same time they furnish an instructive lesson to the world, on the folly of attempting to crush the rising spirit of freedom.

It would be as impracticable for us to detail to our readers the subjects of these letters, as it would be unnecessary to mark the progress of the recent events which occasioned them; and to fill up our pages with detached extracts would afford but an imperfect idea of a publication of this kind. We shall therefore content ourselves with copying part of a letter to the President,

fident, written in a moment of fuſpence, in which the great talents and the honeſt mind of the writer are well diſplayed:

' Sir, *New-York, Head Quarters, Sept.* 8, 1776.

' Since I had the honor of addreſſing you on the ſixth inſtant, I have called a council of the general officers, in order to take a full and comprehenſive view of our ſituation, and thereupon form ſuch a plan of future defence as may be immediately purſued, and ſubject to no other alteration than a change of operations on the enemy's ſide may occaſion.

' Before the landing of the enemy on Long-Iſland, the point of attack could not be known, or any ſatisfactory judgment formed of their intentions. It might be on Long-Iſland, on Bergen, or directly on the city. This made it neceſſary to be prepared for each, and has occaſioned an expenſe of labour which now ſeems uſeleſs, and is regretted by thoſe who form a judgment from after-knowledge. But I truſt, men of diſcernment will think differently, and ſee that by ſuch works and preparations we have not only delayed the operations of the campaign till it is too late to effect any capital incurſion into the country, but have drawn the enemy's forces to one point, and obliged them to [*diſcloſe*] their plan, ſo as to enable us to form our defence on ſome certainty.

' It is now extremely obvious from all intelligence,—from their movements, and every other circumſtance,—that having landed their whole army on Long-Iſland (except about four thouſand on Staten-Iſland), they mean to incloſe us on the iſland of New-York by taking poſt in our rear while the ſhipping effectually ſecure the front; and thus, either by cutting off our communication with the country, oblige us to fight them on their own terms, or ſurrender at diſcretion,—or by a brilliant ſtroke endeavour to cut this army in pieces, and ſecure the collection of arms and ſtores, which they well know we ſhall not be able ſoon to replace.

' Having therefore their ſyſtem unfolded to us, it became an important conſideration how it could be moſt ſucceſsfully oppoſed. On every ſide there is a choice of difficulties; and every meaſure on our part (however painful the reflexion is from experience) to be formed with ſome apprehenſion that all our troops will not do their duty. In deliberating on this great queſtion, it was impoſſible to forget, that hiſtory, our own experience, the advice of our ableſt friends in Europe, the fears of the enemy, and even the declarations of Congreſs, demonſtrate, that on our ſide the war ſhould be defenſive—(it has ever been called a war of poſts);—that we ſhould on all occaſions avoid a general action, nor put any thing to the riſk, unleſs compelled by a neceſſity into which we ought never to be drawn.

' The arguments on which ſuch a ſyſtem was founded were deemed unanſwerable; and experience has given her ſanction. With theſe views, and being fully perſuaded that it would be preſumption to draw out our young troops into open ground againſt their ſuperiors both in number and diſcipline, I have never ſpared the ſpade and pickaxe. I confeſs I have not found that readineſs to defend even ſtrong poſts at all

all hazards, which is necessary to derive the greatest benefit from them. The honor of making a brave defence does not seem to be a sufficient stimulus when success is very doubtful, and the falling into the enemy's hands probable: but I doubt not, this will be gradually attained.—We are now in a strong post, but not an impregnable one, nay acknowledged by every man of judgment to be untenable, unless the enemy will make the attack upon lines when they can avoid it, and their movements indicate that they mean to do so.

'To draw the whole army together in order to arrange the defence proportionate to the extent of lines and works, would leave the country open for an approach, and put the fate of this army and its stores on the hazard of making a successful defence in the city, or the issue of an engagement out of it. On the other hand, to abandon a city which has been by some deemed defensible, and on whose works much labour has been bestowed, has a tendency to dispirit the troops and enfeeble our cause. It has also been considered as the key to the northern country. But as to that, I am fully of opinion that the establishing of strong posts at Mount-Washington on the upper part of this island, and on the Jersey side opposite to it, with the assistance of the obstructions already made (and which may be improved) in the water, not only the navigation of Hudson's-river, but an easier and better communication may be more effectually secured between the northern and southern states. This, I believe, every one acquainted with the situation of the country will readily agree to; and it will appear evident to those who have an opportunity of recurring to good maps.

'These and many other consequences, which will be involved in the determination of our next measure, have given our minds full employ, and led every one to form a judgment as the various objects presented themselves to his view.

'The post at Kingsbridge is naturally strong, and is pretty well fortified: the heights about it are commanding, and might soon be made more so. These are important objects, and I have attended to them accordingly. I have also removed from the city all the stores and ammunition except what was absolutely necessary for its defence, and made every other disposition that did not essentially interfere with that object,—carefully keeping in view, until it should be absolutely determined on full consideration, how far the city was to be defended at all events.

'In resolving points of such importance, many circumstances peculiar to our own army also occur. Being only provided for a summer's campaign, their clothes, shoes, and blankets, will soon be unfit for the change of weather which we every day feel. At present we have not tents for more than two-thirds, many of them old and worn out: but if we had a plentiful supply, the season will not admit of continuing in them long.—The case of our sick is also worthy of much consideration. Their number, by the returns, forms at least one-fourth of the army. Policy and humanity require they should be made as comfortable as possible.

'With these and many other circumstances before them, the whole council of general officers met yesterday in order to adopt some general line of conduct to be pursued at this important crisis. I intended

to

to have procured their separate opinions on each point; but time would not admit. I was therefore obliged to collect their sense more generally than I could have wished.—All agreed the town would not be tenable if the enemy resolved to bombard and canonnade it: but the difficulty attending a removal operated so strongly, that a course was taken between abandoning it totally and concentring our whole strength for its defence: nor were some a little influenced in their opinion, to whom the determination of Congress was known, against an evacuation totally, as they were led to suspect Congress wished it to be maintained at every hazard.

'It was concluded to arrange the army under three divisions;—five thousand to remain for the defence of the city;—nine thousand to Kingsbridge and its dependencies, as well to possess and secure those posts, as to be ready to attack the enemy who are moving eastward on Long-Island, if they should attempt to land on this side;—the remainder to occupy the intermediate space, and support either;—that the sick should be immediately removed to Orangetown, and barracks prepared at Kingsbridge with all expedition to cover the troops.

'There were some general officers, in whose judgment and opinion much confidence is to be reposed, that were for a total and immediate removal from the city,—urging the great danger of one part of the army being cut off before the other can support it, the extremities being at least sixteen miles apart;—that our army, when collected, is inferior to the enemy;—that they can move with their whole force to any point of attack, and consequently must succeed by weight of numbers, if they have only a part to oppose them;—that, by removing from hence, we deprive the enemy of the advantage of their ships, which will make at least one half of the force to attack the town:—that we should keep the enemy at bay, put nothing to the hazard, but at all events keep the army together, which may be recruited another year;—that the unspent stores will also be preserved; and, in this case, the heavy artillery can also be secured. But they were over-ruled by a majority, who thought for the present a part of our force might be kept here, and attempt to maintain the city a while longer.

'I am sensible a retreating army is encircled with difficulties; that the declining an engagement subjects a general to reproach; and that the common cause may be affected by the discouragement it may throw over the minds of many. Nor am I insensible of the contrary effects, if a brilliant stroke could be made with any probability of success, especially after our loss upon Long-Island.—But, when the fate of America may be at stake on the issue,—when the wisdom of cooler moments and experienced men have decided that we should protract the war if possible,—I cannot think it safe or wise to adopt a different system when the season for action draws so near a close.'

In order to satisfy our readers concerning the authenticity of these letters, it is only necessary to inform them that they have been copied, by permission obtained from the proper authority, from the original papers preserved in the Secretary of State's office in Philadelphia. The editor's advertisement mentions these letters as only a part of the documents with which he

he is furniſhed, relating to the conteſt between America and Great Britain; and it gives the public reaſon to expect, in the ſequel, other intereſting pieces penned by the leaders and principal agents in the American revolution, and tending to throw light on many important tranſactions which have hitherto been either enveloped in total darkneſs, or, at beſt, but obſcurely perceived and imperfectly underſtood.

The editor has been prevented from publiſhing other papers connected with theſe by obſtacles *at preſent* inſurmountable: but, when they are removed, he promiſes (in an appendix) ſuch parts of them, at leaſt, as are moſt curious and intereſting.

Beſides the title copied at the head of this article, another more general one is prefixed to the work, intimating that theſe volumes are only a part of a large deſign; this title is, *American State Papers, being a Collection of Original and Authentic Documents relative to the War between the United States and Great Britain.*

ART. V. *Memoirs of the Medical Society of London.* Vol. IV. 8vo. pp. 450. 7s. Boards. Dilly. 1795.

WE ſhall proceed to the examination of the various papers in this volume, without detaining the reader by any prefatory remarks, and omitting ſuch caſes as ſuggeſt no particular obſervation.

Caſe of Pemphigus, by W. Gaitſkell, ſurgeon, Rotherhithe. In this caſe there was no fever, nor any occaſion for medicine. The author inoculated himſelf with the contents of the veſicles without effect. This liquor is like the ſerum of the blood, but leſs ſaline, and gives leſs coagulum with acids.

Obſervations on the digitalis purpurea, by W. Currie, M. D. Cheſter. Dr. C. tells us that his experience with this medicine in dropſy correſponds entirely with that of Dr. Lettſom. *Qu.* Did Dr. C. give doſes equally large? He relates no particulars;—in the place of facts, however, we have ſpeculations: but, unfortunately, theſe are neither very new, nor very edifying. The abſorption of the fluids (when it happens) 'appears to have been owing to the commotion excited in the conſtitution by the *vires med. nat.* in order to obviate the ſedative effects of the digitalis:'—but what are the *vires med.* doing when no commotion is excited, and yet the water is abſorbed? No doubt, the Doctor can tell, by virtue of his pliant theory; and after he has told, neither he himſelf nor his reader ſhall underſtand what actions of the body have been excited: yet in the knowlege of theſe, true medical ſcience ſolely conſiſts. Dr. C. adds a recommendation of digitalis in mania and in hæmorrhages.

An experienced and successful method of treating the fistula in ano, by J. Mudge, M. D. Plymouth. Dr. M. proposes to facilitate the operation, and the subsequent treatment, by the help of a speculum of which an engraving is affixed. His idea appears feasible and ingenious.

An account of the medicinal effects of the resin of the acaroides resinifera, or yellow resin, from Botany Bay, by C. Kite, surgeon, Gravesend. Mr. K. relates many cases and adduces many testimonies in favour of this resin. He annexes a catalogue of its virtues, somewhat indiscriminate indeed, but ample enough for an advertisement:

'I will for the present therefore content myself with observing, that independent of the complaints in which it is here related to have succeeded, such as nausea, sickness, vomiting, flatulency, heartburn, pains in the stomach, and all the other symptoms of dyspepsia, Diarrhœa, mild degrees of cholera, dysentery, flatulency, and pain in the bowels, spasms in the stomach, in the muscles of the trunk, and in those of the extremities, the gout in the stomach, and violent pains in the extremities resembling the gout or rheumatism,—Great and general prostration of strength,—Catarrhous affections,—And in certain cases of amenorrhœa and fluor albus.—Exclusive of these complaints I say, in all cases where debility itself is the idiopathic complaint, where it is independent of, and unconnected with any real organic disease—I should expect, whether the affection be local or general, that the yellow gum will be found a very powerful and effectual restorative.'

The yellow resin may have its use: but, from its sensible qualities, and from actual trial, we are inclined to think that it will by no means fulfil the expectations which this paper may raise in the minds of the unwary.

Observations and experiments on the external absorption of emetic tartar and arsenic, by W. Gaitskell, surgeon. Former experiments on this subject are well known. Mr. G. from his personal experience and that of several friends, concludes that neither tartar emetic nor other metallic preparations (mercurials excepted) can ever be employed as useful alteratives. Tartar emetic, rubbed on the skin with water, produced suppurating pimples in more than one instance.

Dr. Bradley also treats of the *infrication* of tartar emetic. The same effect on the skin and the same inefficacy on the system are noticed. His paper, however, holds out the prospect of good effect in rheumatism, &c. if the distressing eruption could be avoided or rendered tolerable. The same method of applying emetic tartar is favourably mentioned in the appendix.

History of three cases of typhus successfully treated, by W. Harrison, M. D. Rippon. The practice of washing febrile patients with cold water is well known, though not generally followed.

Dr. H.

Dr. H. uſed vinegar and water, equal parts: the caſes appear to have been bad: in one patient, he ſays, the liquor changed the livid colour of the petechiæ to a florid red on its firſt application.

An account of ſome anomalous appearances conſequent to the inoculation of the ſmall-pox, by C. Kite, ſurgeon.

Hiſtory of a ſecond or ſuppoſed ſecond ſmall-pox, by E. Withers, ſurgeon, Newbury.

Caſes of ſeveral women who had the ſmall-pox during pregnancy, with an account of the manner in which the children appeared to have been affected, by C. Kite.

Theſe three papers contain prolific grounds for ſpeculators. Mr. Kite relates ſeveral caſes, authenticated with names, in which a febrile diſeaſe, ſometimes attended with eruptions, was propagated by inoculation with matter from perſons in the ſmall-pox, and in which the true ſmall-pox took place ſome time after the patients had gone through the firſt diſeaſe, which was taken for the ſmall-pox. The author's hypotheſis is, that variolous matter, in its progreſs towards becoming effete, may occaſion a diſeaſe reſembling ſmall-pox, and yet may be incapable of deſtroying the ſuſceptibility of the conſtitution for this diſorder. His advice is, 'never to employ variolous matter except when it is perfectly freſh, and not to be too confident that the patient has abſolutely had the ſmall-pox unleſs the puſtules have gone through a regular maturation.'

The ſingular narrative of Mr. Withers opens thus:

'Mr. Richard Langford, a farmer of Weſt Shefford, in this county, about fifty years of age, when about a month old had the ſmall-pox, at a time when three others of the family underwent the ſame diſeaſe, one of whom, a ſervant man, died with it. Mr. Langford's countenance was ſtrongly indicative of the malignity of the diſtemper, his face being ſo remarkably pitted and ſeamed, as to attract the notice of all who ſaw him, ſo that no one could entertain a doubt about his having had that diſeaſe in the moſt inveterate manner; moreover, it was uſual for him alſo, whenever the ſmall pox happened among the poor of his pariſh, to attend and aſſiſt in accommodating them with all neceſſaries.'

Mr. W. goes on to ſay that Mr. L. was ſeized with a feveriſh complaint, in the courſe of which an eruption appeared with all the characters of the ſmall-pox, and which was judged to be ſuch by two phyſicians. The opinion was ridiculed: but 'four of the family, as alſo a ſiſter of the patient (to whom the diſeaſe was conveyed by her ſon's viſiting his uncle) falling down with the ſmall-pox, fully ſatisfied the country with regard to the nature of the diſeaſe.' Such is the account. Reader, explain the phænomena.

Mr. Kite alſo furniſhes a conſiderable number of caſes of women who have had the ſmall-pox during pregnancy. To

explain why the fœtus is ſo ſeldom infected, he modeſtly propoſes a general remark, deduced from his own experience. Young infants, he thinks, are remarkably unſuſceptible of the variolous and *rubeolous* contagions: 'the younger, the weaker, the infant is, the leſs of life it poſſeſſes, the leſs ſuſceptibility it has alſo for theſe complaints.' Mr. Turnbull relates an inſtance of communication of the ſmall-pox to the fœtus.

An inſtance of a fatal pulmonary conſumption, without any evident hectic fever, by Ant. Fothergill, M. D. The caſe here reported may eaſily be explained, according to the opinion of thoſe who teach that the excluſion of air from ulcerating ſurfaces frequently prevents hectic fever, and *v. v.* The patient had no night ſweats, no rigors, no purulent expectoration. On diſſection, it appeared that 'the right lobe of the lungs was totally deſtroyed, and the cavity compleatly full of very fœtid purulent matter.'

Hiſtory of a caſe of croup terminating fatally, with a diſſection and incidental remarks, by Henry Field, apothecary.

Auguſt 23. A girl, three years old, ſtout and healthy, had 'a conſiderable degree of fever, wheezing and difficult reſpiration, ſounding at times ſomewhat ſtridulous, the fauces red and inflamed, and covered each with a mucous membrane-like appearance; a cough frequent and ſounding peculiarly ſhrill.' Topical bleeding, with ſix leeches, and infuſion of ſenna and antimonial wine, beſides two bliſters, were firſt preſcribed; and the ſymptoms in general were thought to be ſomewhat mitigated. Cantharides externally, with nauſeating emetic and opening medicines, were freely uſed till the 28th; ſome ſlight fluctuations were obſerved, but the patient expired early on the 29th. Diſſection ſhewed 'ſlight inflammation through the whole internal ſurface of the trachea, extending into the bronchia: the epiglottis and glottis were compleatly covered with a thick, white, opake, membranous cruſt, adhering firmly to thoſe parts ſo as to be ſeparated with difficuly by a probe, and extending about an inch downwards in the trachea.'

Such were the progreſs and the event, and ſuch the appearances after death. On theſe data, Mr. F. proceeds to comment; we ſhall touch on a few of the principal points; and, if we ſpeak freely, we truſt to the importance of the occaſion for our juſtification. The eſſential character of this diſeaſe is ſaid to 'conſiſt in a morbid ſtate of the larynx and trachea, diſpoſing them to ſecrete a *mucus* of a peculiar nature, and which in a very ſhort time concretes into a membranous ſubſtance.' Mr. Hunter has abundantly demonſtrated that a certain degree of inflammation occaſions the ſecretion of coagulating lymph: but neither in croup nor in any form of pneumonia, does ſuch ſecretion

ſecretion always take place; yet, though the action of the veſſels does not attain that violence, it may ſtill be in great and dangerous exceſs. On this, therefore, the eye of the practitioner ought to be fixed; and in this ſhould the *eſſence* of the diſeaſe, if ſuch forms of ſpeech avail any thing, be made to conſiſt. Mr. F. (p. 152-3) has ſome minute obſervations on the ſtridulous ſound 'which is uſually conſidered as characteriſtic of this diſeaſe.' There is only one method of contemplating this circumſtance, which can lead to any thing uſeful. This is not to lay ſtreſs on exact ſimilitude of tone, but to repreſent a latitude of ſound as neceſſary; for it will evidently be more or leſs ſhrill, as the wind-pipe is more or leſs braced by inflammation. Thoſe who underſtand how to allow for the variation of nature in ſuch minutiæ will, we are perſuaded, feel none of that embarraſſment to which Mr. F. alludes, when he ſays (p. 155) that 'our preſent experience is certainly inadequate' to an early diſcrimination of this diſeaſe.

The farther we advance in this paper, the more do we feel inclined to oppoſe opinion to opinion. The following paſſage, which reſpects the moſt important meaſure in the whole treatment, ſeems to us ſcarcely leſs pregnant with evil than Pandora's box:

'As the inflammation *does not appear of a very active kind*, general evacuation by blood-letting does not ſeem *admiſſible* in this diſeaſe; topical evacuation by leeches, nevertheleſs, ſhould be purſued with great vigour, at leaſt in the early ſtages of it, being that which has the moſt certain tendency to relieve the ſymptoms without inducing much general debility, which circumſtance it is particularly neceſſary to guard againſt.'

In evidence of the activity of the inflammation, we appeal to parts of ſimilar ſtructure, when they are ſtimulated to the ſecretion of coagulating lymph. We might alſo reſt ſomething on the analogy of acute diſeaſes in children. We aſſert that the debility induced by general blood-letting is nothing, in compariſon with that induced by the continuance of inflammation; and that the former will never be dangerous within any moderate period after the attack.

'Dr. Home (ſays Mr. Field) objects to the early application of bliſters to the affected parts;' (p. 159,) and we confeſs that we were not able to avoid ſhuddering at the boldneſs and pertinacity with which the ſtimulus of cantharides was applied in the caſe deſcribed, conſidering that the inflammatory action of the exhalants was not previouſly removed by free emiſſion of blood. It would have been better, in our judgment, to have uſed the ſimple ſolution of tartarized antimony than the medicines preſcribed. This is readily taken by children; and, beſides its

uſual primary operation, it often renders cathartics needleſs. The treatment in the inſtance before us was directed by the late ingenious Dr. Auſtin.

In our animadverſions on this paper, we have been the more prolix on account of the great frequency and fatality of the croup in London. For ourſelves, we are perſuaded that parents will continue to mourn over the tombs of their offspring, unleſs the lancet be freely employed in this dangerous diſeaſe.

Dr. Senter's *ſingular caſe of iſchuria* has already, as it well deſerved, been particularly noticed by us in our account of the American Medical Tranſactions. (See Rev. Appendix to vol. xvi. N. S.)

Some account of Anguſtura bark, by J. C. Lettſom, M. D. We have here a favourable report of the virtues of the Ang. bark in certain ſtates of low fever, particularly where the bowels are affected. Some other applications of this medicine are annexed. Dr. L. thinks that 'the medicinal properties of the Ang. bark depend not ſo much upon its bitter quality as upon its *tonic antiſeptic febrifuge powers*.'

Abridgment of Mr. Robert White's paper on ſchirro-contracted rectum. The author adviſes early attention to this diſeaſe; he mentions ſome ſymptoms which may ſerve to characterize it in its incipient ſtate, and recommends the uſe of mercury, when the diſorder is aſcertained.

A caſe of petechiæ, unaccompanied with fever, with obſervations on the ſame, by T. Garrett, M. D. Harrogate. This patient had alſo hæmorrhages from the noſe, and ſpongy bleeding gums, with great weakneſs. He recovered under the uſe of tonics, bitters, and acids. We ſhould much wiſh to know what the beſt remedies in ſea-ſcurvy, as juice of lemons, would effect in ſuch a caſe.

Caſe of angina pectoris, with remarks, by Samuel Black, M. D. Newry, Ireland. This is a very valuable paper. It ſeems to aſcertain the proximate cauſe of one diviſion of thoſe extraordinary ſeizures, which go under the name of *angina pectoris*. In the patient whoſe caſe gave occaſion to this communication, the heart was found 'unuſually tender and lacerable. In none of the valves could any viſible degeneracy be detected, but the two coronary arteries exhibited the moſt complete oſſification I ever ſaw. From their origin through two inches of their length they had become a compleat bone.' There was no accumulation of fat, no effuſion; and, doubtleſs, the incapability of the arteries, of ſo important a viſcus as the heart, to perform their office, may be conſidered as an adequate cauſe of diſeaſe and death.

Curſory

Curſory remarks on the appearance of angina ſcarlatina in the ſpring of 1793, by J. C. Lettſom, M. D. How far this paper tends to throw new light on a moſt formidable diſeaſe, we ſhall leave to the purchaſers of the volume to determine.

Hints reſpecting the priſon of Newgate, by J. C. Lettſom, M. D. To readers acquainted with the meaſures propoſed of late years for inſuring the ſalubrity of gaols and ſhips, theſe benevolent hints towards 'meliorating miſery' will afford little inſtruction. The paper is illuſtrated by a more compleat ground plan of Newgate than has ever been publiſhed.—'When I viſited the female convicts,' ſays the writer, 'I was ſhocked on viewing their wretched condition; ſome of them had ſcarcely raiment ſufficient to render them decent, although the keeper, Mr. Kirby, had expended nearly 20l. out of his own pocket to aſſiſt them.'

Hiſtory of the treatment of hæmorrhages, by Jon. Binns, M. D. Liverpool. Dr. Binns has uſed *cold* glyſters with ſucceſs in diſcharges of blood by ſtool. He relates at length a caſe of diarrhœa at the cloſe of typhus, in which this practice anſwered. The glyſters conſiſted of decoction of tormentil with gum-arabic and a little vitriolic acid.—Under this article is a caſe of amauroſis of ſix months' ſtanding, ſucceſsfully treated by a cold infuſion of one grain of Cayenne pepper in an ounce of water. This application deſerves trial. With the writer of this article it has failed in one very fair caſe.

Some account of the dyſopia, by M. Guthrie, M. D. Peterſburgh. This is a ſingular complaint, known in Ruſſia by a name ſignifying the *hen blindneſs*. The patient loſes his ſight at ſunſet, and does not recover it till ſun-riſe. He is blind during the lighteſt nights of ſummer. The diſeaſe is common among the peaſants during the hay-harveſt, when they generally work all night, to avoid the ſultry heat of day, and when they ſleep leſs than uſual. There is no pain nor any external appearance. This temporary amauroſis goes off ſpontaneouſly, but they uſe what Dr. G. believes to be a decoction of the blue-bottle (centaurea cyanus). The cauſe is evidently exhauſtion of the irritability of the retina, by exceſs of light.

On the internal uſe of ſilver in the epilepſy, by James Sims, M. D. Dr. S. ſays that he has ſucceſsfully given from the 8th to the 20th part of a grain of the nitrat of ſilver in epilepſy. Two favourable caſes are related.

The *Appendix* contains a number of obſervations, among which *a caſe of ſpaſm* from Mr. J. Malden, ſurgeon, has principally drawn our attention: it was, however, as much a caſe of convulſion as of ſpaſm. E. G. a delicate young woman, would ſometimes cough an hour or more inceſſantly, then hiccough,

then complain of violent pain of the abdomen, then the ſphincter of the bladder would be contracted, and afterward the jaw. At the time of the inceſſant cough, a few drops of blood drawn from the arm—five or only three drops, and on all occaſions half an ounce—would produce immediate relief:—but bleeding would only relieve the convulſion (which the author miſcalls *ſpaſm*) of the muſcles of reſpiration. A complete cure is ſaid to have been effected by ſevere ſalivation.

ART. VI. *A New General Hiſtory of Scotland*, from the earlieſt Times to the Æra of the Abolition of the Hereditary Juriſdictions of Subjects in Scotland in the Year 1748. By Robert Heron. Vol. I. 2 Parts. 8vo. pp. 449. 7s. ſewed. Vernor. 1794.

IN the year 1793, Mr. H. publiſhed propoſals for a general hiſtory of Scotland in twelve books, to be comprized in 3 vols. 8vo. price one guinea. The firſt volume is now ſubmitted to the public, divided into two books with notes, the former comprehending the hiſtory of the Romans, Caledonians, Britons, Picts, Scots, Angloſaxons, and Danes, in Scotland, until the acceſſion of Malcolm Canmore, *Anno Domini* 1057; and the latter comprehending the period of Scottiſh hiſtory from the acceſſion of Malcolm to the death of Alexander III. A. D. 1281.

In treating this obſcure and unpromiſing ſubject, Mr. H. ingenuouſly confeſſes that 'we have no diſtinctions of language, no oppoſition of cuſtoms, manners, or character, no claſſific diverſities in the productions of the arts, to enable us to diſtinguiſh accurately from one another, the ſeveral races of people by which North Britain might be (read *was*) anciently inhabited.' He obſerves, therefore, modeſtly and truly,

'In the diſcuſſion of doubtful facts, in the Notes, I believe, I may have expreſſed leſs violence of paſſion, than has been diſplayed by ſeveral of thoſe who have lately examined theſe ſame ſubjects. Some writers know not to diſpute, without ſcolding and calumniating their adverſaries, in all the bitterneſs of rage: and there are readers, I doubt not, *wiſe* enough to find theſe the beſt, nay the only proper means for eſtabliſhing the juſtneſs of any opinion. But, I, for my part, have never found, that I could diſtinguiſh truth with clearer viſion, or ſeize it with a ſurer graſp, when I may have had the misfortune to be out of humour. And, I am perfectly ſatisfied, that a man may not be of the ſame mind as I, about many matters; yet, have neither cloven feet, nor aſſes' ears.'

Though this writer diſplays leſs ill nature, he does not ſhew leſs induſtry, than his competitors, in this obſcure walk of literature: but it is to be regretted that, like them, he does not ſeem very perfectly acquainted with all the elegancies and proprieties

proprieties of the English language. As a specimen of his style, we give the following account of the clergy of Scotland in the 11th and 12th centuries.

'The Clergy of Scotland were not at this time eminently learned. Yet, with them, was almost all the little learning which the nation possessed. They were commonly able to read and write. They were skilled in that legendary lore which recited the deeds of Saints, and the innumerable machinations employed by dæmons against *their* piety and peace. For the greater part, they understood the Latin, as well as their vernacular language. They were patrons and professors of the Fine Arts. In the monasteries, copies of books were multiplied by transcription. The most skilful masons and architects were monks or secular clergymen. In the spiritual courts, justice was administered with greater wisdom and impartiality, than in the Lay courts, in all cases, in which the interests of the church were not immediately concerned.

'The circumstances of their clerical state had a natural tendency to render the clergy selfish, luxurious, proud, and hypocritical. But, the same peculiar circumstances also made them peaceable, pious, wise, and beneficent above the laity. It is the felicity of the clerical character, that although it have a tendency to cultivate and cherish certain evil habits; it is at the same time calculated, in a much more eminent degree, to produce and maintain those habits of virtue which are the most beneficial to society. Gross luxury reigned in some of the more opulent monasteries, and among the superior clergy. A bishop of St. Andrew's took away a patronage from the abbacy of Dunfermline; because the monks had neglected, upon a visit which he paid to the abbey, to leave in his bed-chamber, enough of wine for his nocturnal potations. Many of the little legends by which the monkish writers have recommended virtue and reproved wickedness, relate punishments inflicted miraculously upon the butlers, stewards, and cooks, in the convents, for their gross and abominable gluttony or drunkenness. Many of those legendary tales are also directed against simoniacal practices, and against the engrossing of a plurality of benefices, in the hands of one incumbent. The morality of the writings of the monks, is often pure and sublime, as that taught by the theologians and philosophers of the most enlightened ages. The gradual emancipation of the Bondmen, was owing, in a very considerable degree, to the solicitations and advice of the Clergy; although more, it must be confessed, to their solicitations and advice, than to their example. The firm, independent spirit with which the Scottish Clergy resisted the usurped authority of the Archbishop of York and the English church, was singularly honourable to them. In the whole it must be allowed, that the ignorance of the Clergy and the corruption of religion in this age were produced in a great measure, by the unavoidable effects of that flood of barbarism which had deluged Europe, and remained for a time, in stagnation, over it; but that no other system of religion could, in a period equally barbarous, have accomplished effects so beneficial, upon the condition of civil life; or could have formed and maintained a hierarchy of priests, so virtuous, although

though opulent, so useful in society, although connected with it by fewer ties than others.—It was in the course of the eleventh and twelfth centuries, that the secular clergy of Scotland gradually renounced matrimony, and were persuaded to content themselves with celibacy and concubinage.'

Although this work exhibits neither extraordinary novelty of research, nor felicity of arrangement, nor uncommon depth of reflection; yet, as a faithful compilement from authentic monuments of the early transactions in Scotland, it will be found, we have no doubt, when completed according to the intelligent author's plan, convenient, entertaining, and useful.

ART. VII. *A Review of the Governments of Sparta and Athens.* By William Drummond. 8vo. pp. 282. 6s. boards. Large Paper. Nicol.

THE ingenious author of this treatise thinks, rightly, with Sigonius, that there are so many monuments of virtue and wisdom amid the ruins of Greece, that we can scarcely apply ourselves too much to the study of the antients, and to the contemplation of their example.

In examining the constitutions of Sparta and Athens, Mr. D. justly claims the merit of always preferring 'that little which the Greeks have left to us, to the long and laborious treatises of modern compilers.' Among these, however, he says, 'I do not reckon Montagu, or [nor] a more learned author, who has published an account of the civil institutions of Sparta and of Athens in his History of Ancient Greece.' Mr. Drummond's opinions indeed, as to the merits and defects of those governments, nearly agree with those of Dr. Gillies; and it cannot be surprizing that writers who draw from the same sources of information, and prefer the fair appreciation of historical facts to the vanity of forming new theories, should arrive at the same or nearly similar conclusions.

The chapter *on the internal arrangement of the Spartan government* gave us particular satisfaction: but it is too long for an extract. Agreeably to the maxims which are contained in it, the author thus briefly explains the true principles of the Athenian government:

'The first and most remarkable effect produced at Athens, by the promulgation of Solon's laws, was the equal liberty rendered to all its citizens. Now if the practice of the government had corresponded with its theory, the causes which should have preserved this system, would have been the virtue and moderation of the rich, and the spirit and magnanimity of the poor. But these moral causes may be all properly referred to one principle, namely, *patriotism*. It is therefore obvious, that patriotism was a principle of the Athenian government, or at least of its theory.

'The

'The security of person and property, which was so well established at Athens, is deservedly considered as the best gift of liberty. The efficient causes of this security, were the attention paid to the characters of those who were appointed judges, and the impartiality and wisdom of the laws themselves. Now it is evident that *justice* is the principle, to which these causes may be referred; and which may be reckoned another principle in the Athenian government.

'The constitution required, that a law, after it had been formed by the senate, and approved by the people, should be finally referred to an assembly, composed of the wisest of the citizens of Athens; for although their approbation gave it no new force, yet their disapprobation was sufficient to annul it. Now the object being evidently to obtain the advantages of time, of deliberation, of reflection, and even of experience, we may justly conclude, that the principle here assumed, was *prudence*.

'The illustrious Montesquieu makes honour and moderation to be the principles of a limited monarchy, and of aristocracy. But when we consider the high reputation of the Athenian magistrates for justice and probity, and when we recollect how much was left in the power of the judge, we must surely acknowledge, that these were also principles in the constitution of Athens. For honour is the principle, which disposes rightly that part of our conduct with regard to others, which law cannot reach; and moderation is a principle which founded upon reason, co-operates with honour in restraining the influence of the passions.

'Now Solon provided by several laws against the admission of any persons to the dignified station of Archon and Areopagite, whose characters, and even whose families bore not the reputation of virtue. No attempt even, was permitted to be made to influence the passions in the assembly of the Areopagites, and their decrees have undergone the scrutiny of historical research, unblemished by a stain.

'It appears then from the foregoing investigation, that the leading principles of the Athenian constitution, were *patriotism*, *justice*, *prudence*, *honour*, and *moderation*.'

Mr. D. is a judicious and modest author, whose aim is not to dazzle, but to inform. In this age of literary enterprise and political innovation, he disdains to court temporary applause by specious singularity and boldness: but, on the contrary, he shews no small skill in impressing maxims which are not the less respectable because they are more antient, nor the less useful because, by all wise lawgivers, universally approved.

In a few instances, Mr. D. seems to have mistaken, and mis-translated, the Greek passages which he cites. Thus, p. 209 he makes Pausanias say "This report is believed by those who are ignorant of history; and who trust to what they hear from the tragedians, and the boys belonging to the choruses." We think that the words "ευθυς εκ παιδων" should be translated "from their childhood;"—and then the passage would run thus: "other falsehoods are reported by the multitude, ignorant of history, and who believe what they have been

been accuſtomed to hear from their childhood in choruſes and tragedies."

In p. 223, Mr. D. ſays 'Ariſtotle ſpeaks of Solon with a kind of contemptuous approbation.' The Stagyrite's words do not juſtify this remark: Σολωνα ενιοι μεν οιονται νομοθετην γινεσθαι σπουδαιον: "ſome indeed think that Solon was an excellent legiſlator;" for that Ariſtotle himſelf was of this opinion is clear from what follows in the ſame chapter, Polit. ii. c. x. when he ſays that the diſorders which happened in the Athenian government proceeded not from any error in its original ſtructure, but from the naval victories of the Athenians, which filled them with pride and inſolence, and made them liſten to flattering demagogues who deceived and betrayed them. In other parts of the ſame work, Ariſtotle ſpeaks of Solon's inſtitutions and character in terms of the higheſt reſpect.—Vide Polit. i. 5. iii. 7. and iv. 11.

ART. VIII. *Letters and Papers on Agriculture, Planting*, &c. ſelected from the Correſpondence of the Bath and Weſt of England Society for the Encouragement of Agriculture, Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. Vol. VII. 8vo. pp. 390. 6s. Boards. Dilly. 1795.

THE preſent volume is partly compoſed of original communications to this valuable inſtitution, whoſe labours we ever examine with pleaſure and inſtruction, and is partly formed of extracts from the provincial reports,—from the counties of Wilts, Dorſet, and Glouceſter,—made to the Board of Agriculture by ſurveyors employed by the Board to collect the rural information of the different diſtricts of theſe kingdoms, on a plan ſimilar to that in which Mr. Marſhall has for many years been employed.

The original papers are as follow:

On the management of woods, by Mr. *Davis*. On the ſtate and cultivation of timber, by Mr. *Wimpey*. On the ſtate of naval timber, by Mr. *South*. On the American Buffalo; by *G. Turner*, Eſq. of Philadelphia, Judge of the Weſtern Territory. On the method of making Parmeſan cheeſe, by Mr. *Pryce*, (written from Italy in 1793). Six papers, on mangel wurzel, potatoes, poor rates, and poor laws, &c. by Sir *Mordaunt Martin*, Bart. On the abuſe of ſpirituous liquors, by Dr. *Fothergill* of Bath. Six (unintereſting) letters on ſmut in wheat, by anonymous writers. On reſervoirs in farm-yards, &c. by Mr. *Pew*. On the conſtruction of cottages (with plans) by Mr. *Davis*. On fatting with potatoes, by the Rev. *J. H. Cloſe*. On the value of land, with the riſe and fall of the public funds, by Sir *Thomas Beevor*, Bart. On planting cheſnuts,

nuts, &c. by Mr. *Pugh*. On reclaiming a bog, by Mr. *South*. An improved pedometer, by Mr. *Tugwell*. On turnip cabbage, by the Rev. *T. Broughton*. On preventing curl in potatoes, by Mr. *Chapple*. An experiment on ſheep-feeding, by Mr. *Billingſley*. Laſtly, a general index to the ſeven volumes, by Mr. *Croker*.

Moſt of theſe papers are valuable, and would require particular notice, had we room for ſuch a detail. Confined as we are in this reſpect, we ſhall ſelect thoſe only which ſtruck us moſt forcibly in the peruſal.

Mr. *Davis*'s paper, on the ſtate and management of woods in the weſtern counties, was compoſed in conſequence of a premium offered by the Bath Society for a treatiſe on this ſubject. It contains many valuable obſervations, and is evidently written with thoſe advantages which long practice will ever give: but it is not equal to ſome others of Mr. D.'s papers, which we have read with pleaſure in theſe tranſactions; and it falls very ſhort of his report to the Board of Agriculture on the ſtate of huſbandry in Wiltſhire, (included in this volume,) which is a maſterly performance.

On the 'time of cutting woods,' Mr. Davis throws out a good idea, which deſerves general attention:

'There are many opinions reſpecting the moſt proper time of the year for cutting underwood, but there is one rule which, on the *ſeller*'s part, is without exception, viz. that the older the wood is, the later in the ſpring it ſhould be cut. When *old wood* is cut early in the winter, and a hard winter follows, the damage done to the ſtocks is very great;—young flouriſhing wood will bear cutting at any time.'

His concluding remarks on the proſpect of a future ſupply of wood,—a ſubject on which men differ ſo very widely,—are ſenſible, and, we apprehend, pretty juſt:

'Upon a *general enquiry* into the ſtate of the woods in the weſtern counties, and from an *actual knowledge* of a great part of them, the writer hereof is of opinion, that the *quantity of wood-land* in thoſe counties is not reduced *in any great degree*; that in many large tracts of wood land, great advantages have *of late years* been derived from exonerating them, by incloſure acts, or other agreements, from the feed of cattle, to which they were before ſubject, and by which they were very much injured; that upon the whole, as much attention, or perhaps more, is paid to the preſervation of woods, than has been in any former period; that from the quantity of woods *newly planted* within the laſt few years, and particularly from that ſpirit of enquiry into *their value* now ſo generally diffuſed throughout this kingdom, which will point out the neceſſity of protecting them when planted, and the mode of management moſt proper and natural for them, according to their ſeveral ſoils and ſituations; there is at preſent no great reaſon to apprehend that any ſuch ſcarcity of underwood or timber can happen, as will make the want thereof alarming; and as to the

the advance in the price of underwood and timber, *ſo much talked of by all perſons, and ſo much dreaded by many*;—a moment's conſideration will convince them, that no laws that could be made for the preſervation of woods would ſo effectually contribute thereto, as the idea *that the land ſo applied will pay as well or better than in any other ſtate of cultivation.* And as the value of both arable and paſture land in this kingdom has been regularly on the increaſe for many years paſt, and is ſtill increaſing, *it is neceſſary that the price of underwood and timber ſhould increaſe in the ſame proportion*; and ſo far from being alarmed at the advance in the price of the productions of woods, we ſhould conſider *that this very advance is the beſt ſecurity we can have for their preſervation.*'

Mr. *Wimpey*, however, gives a ſtriking inſtance of the preſent ſcarcity of ſhip timber:

'A few years ſince, a large quantity of timber was cut near Torrington, in Devonſhire, and ſent to Plymouth; and at this time there is a quantity at or near the ſame place for the ſame market; now it ſhould ſeem, nothing ſhort of neceſſity can account for the heavy expence that muſt attend the carriage from Torrington to Morwellham quay, near Taviſtock, which is full thirty miles of the moſt hilly and very worſt road in the kingdom. There it is ſhipped and carried to Plymouth, which is the neareſt way it can go. Does not this clearly prove that timber muſt indeed be ſcarce, when it is found neceſſary to be at ſuch an exceedingly heavy expence to procure it?'

Mr. *South* is likewiſe an alarmiſt on the ſubject of a want of large timber, fit for ſhips of war.

Mr. *Turner*'s account of the buffalo of America is ſo intereſting, that we cannot refrain from copying it:

'The American buffalo is, if I miſtake not, the biſon of Buffon. Immenſe herds of this animal roam at large, in Interior America. From Green River to the Miſſiſſippi, the ſhores of the Ohio are lined with them. The hunters are too apt to deſtroy them wantonly: a circumſtance much to be regretted, and not to be prevented. Frequently have I ſeen this fine animal killed; and, excepting the tongue and the tallow, left on the ground, a prey to the tygers, wolves, and eagles. The boſs on the ſhoulders of the buffalo is, as well as the tongue, extremely rich and delicious,—ſuperior to the beſt Engliſh beef. It is uſual to cure the tongues, and tranſport them to New-Orleans; where they are ſure to meet with a good market.

'There is a ſingular, an affecting trait in the character of the buffalo, when a calf; and my feelings have ſeverely felt it. Whenever a cow buffalo falls before the murdering lead of the hunters, and happens to have a calf, the helpleſs young one, far from attempting an eſcape, ſtays by its fallen dam, with ſigns expreſſive of ſtrong and active natural affection. The dam thus ſecured, the hunter makes no attempt on the calf, (knowing it to be unneceſſary) but proceeds to cut up the carcaſe: then laying it on his horſe, he returns towards home, followed by the poor calf, thus inſtinctively attending the remains of its dam. I have ſeen a ſingle hunter ride into the town of Cincinnati, between the Miames, followed in this manner, and, at

the ſame time, by three calves, who had loſt their dams by this cruel hunter.

'Since I have expreſſed a wiſh to ſee the buffalo domeſticated on the Engliſh farms, I will now mention a fact concerning it, within my own knowledge. A farmer, on the great Kenhawa, broke a young buffalo to the plough; having yoked it with a ſteer taken from his tame cattle. The buffalo performed to admiration. Enquiring of the man, whether he had any fault to find with the buffalo's performance, he anſwered, there was but one objection to it: the ſtep of the buffalo was too quick for that of the tame ſteer. "My friend," ſaid I, "the fault lies not in the buffalo, but in the ſteer: what you term a fault in the former is really an advantage on its ſide." Till this moment, the man had laboured under one of thoſe clouds of prejudice but too common among farmers. He had taken the ox of his father's farm, as the unit whence all his calculations were to be made, and his concluſions drawn:—it was his unchangeable ſtandard of excellence, whether applied to the plough or to the draught. No ſooner was my obſervation uttered, than conviction flaſhed on his mind. He acknowledged the ſuperiority of the buffalo.

'But there is another property in which the buffalo far ſurpaſſes the ox:—his ſtrength. Judging from the extraordinary ſize of his bones, and the depth and formation of his cheſt, I ſhould not think it unreaſonable to aſſign nearly a double portion of ſtrength to this powerful inhabitant of the foreſt. Reclaim him, and you gain a capital quadruped for the draught and for the plough: his activity peculiarly fits him for the latter, in preference to the ox.'

Mr. *Pryce*'s account of the mode of making Parmeſan cheeſe is entitled to attention:

'At ten o'clock in the morning, five brents and a half of milk, each brent being about forty-eight quarts, was put into a large copper, which turned on a crane, over a ſlow wood-fire, made about two feet below the ſurface of the ground. The milk was ſtirred from time to time; and, about eleven o'clock, when juſt luke-warm or conſiderably under a blood-heat, a ball of rennet, as big as a large walnut, was ſqueezed through a cloth into the milk, which was kept ſtirring. This rennet was ſaid to have been purchaſed of a man at Lodie, famous for the compoſition; but that it was principally made of the ſame part of the calf as we uſe in England for that purpoſe, mixed up with ſalt and vinegar: it appeared to me to be alſo mixed with old cheeſe. I much doubt whether there was any great ſecret in the compoſition: but it ſeems to me that the juſt proportion of rennet is a matter of conſequence, which is not in general ſufficiently attended to. By the help of the crane, the copper was turned from over the fire, and let ſtand till a few minutes paſt twelve; at which time the rennet had ſufficiently operated. It was now ſtirred up, and left to ſtand a ſhort time, for the whey to ſeparate a little from the curd. Part of the whey was then taken out, and the copper again turned over a fire ſufficiently briſk to give a ſtrongiſh heat, but below that of boiling. A quarter of an ounce of ſaffron was put in, to give it a little colour; but not ſo unnaturally high as ſome cheeſes in England are coloured; and it was well ſtirred from time to time. The dairy-*man* (this is not

not women's work in Italy) frequently felt the curd. When the ſmall, and, as it were, granulated parts, felt rather firm, which was in about an hour and half, the copper was taken from the fire, and the curd left to fall to the bottom. Part of the whey was taken out, and the curd brought up in a coarſe cloth, hanging together in a tough ſtate. It was put into a hoop, and about a half-hundred weight laid upon it, for about an hour; after which the cloth was taken off, and the cheeſe placed on a ſhelf in the ſame hoop. At the end of two, or from that to three days, it is ſprinkled all over with ſalt: the ſame is repeated every ſecond day, for about forty to forty-five days; after which no further attention is required. Whilſt ſalting, they generally place two cheeſes one upon another; in which ſtate they are ſaid to take the ſalt better than ſingly.

'The whey is again turned into the copper, and a ſecond ſort of cheeſe is made; and afterwards even a third ſort, as I was informed;—a piece of œconomy which I have not known practiſed in England.'

Dr. *Fothergill*'s paper on the abuſe of ſpirituous liquors is worthy of much praiſe, as it is evidently written with the beſt intentions: but it is perhaps overcharged. Spirits, like other poiſons, are medicinal when judiciouſly adminiſtered.

Mr. *Pew*'s looſe letter on farm-yards, orchards, &c. contains nothing new nor excellent; and is unworthy of the author of the "Plan for the Prevention of Poverty *."

Mr. *Davis*'s plans and elevations of cottages are ingenious, but are objectionable as being too expenſive for ordinary cottages of farm workmen. In the neighbourhood of a great man's houſe, ſuch buildings are in character.

The Rev. Mr. *Broughton*'s letters on the turnip-cabbage are valuable on account of an intereſting experiment made on this plant, as an article for ſea-ſtore for long voyages. After having aſcertained that it may be kept on the ground until the firſt week in May, and having conjectured that it may be preſerved to a later time of the ſummer, he continues—

'In addition to the account of this experiment, it may not perhaps be unacceptable, if I ſhould ſtate the particulars of another experiment I have made on this plant. Concluding that it might be a valuable addition to the liſt of vegetable ſea-ſtores, I ſent two hamper-baſkets of them on board a veſſel bound for Jamaica. The plants, cut in a dry day, were diveſted of their leaves and roots, and packed with dry ſtraw in hampers with the ſtalks downward. The following particulars were communicated to me by the Captain on his return.

'December 4th, 1792, two were dreſſed in the following manner: The tops and ſtalks being cut off, and the rind ſtripped off, they were cut into ſlices, and boiled in *freſh* water, until they were ſoft, which uſually took half an hour; they were then preſſed and brought to table as maſhed turnips, for which they were an excellent ſubſtitute,

* Included in this volume: ſee our Review for April 1793, p. 423; alſo for January 1795, p. 101.

but much ſweeter. We continued to uſe them in this manner, till towards the end of the month, when the weather becoming much warmer, we obſerved them not to be ſo good, and found that thoſe which were hung up near the cabin-windows, in the pantry, and in the ſtair-caſe, began to wither and ſhrivel, and appear yellow. Thoſe which remained in the baſket, with their roots downward, were in a much better ſtate. On the firſt of January 1793, ſome of thoſe in the latter ſtate were dreſſed as follows:—The roots and tops being taken off, but the rind left on, they were boiled in *ſalt* water with the ſalt beef; the ſalt of which did not appear to have affected the inſide much, after boiling three hours; they were then taken up, and the inſide ſcooped out of the top, and were found to be much ſweeter and better, and the colour yellower, than any of the former ones boiled in freſh water.

'In addition to theſe minutes of the Captain, I have to remark, that three or four plants, which remained when they arrived at Kingſton, were delivered to my brother Dr. Broughton; who hung them up in his pantry. Three weeks after they were placed there, he obſerved one of them to throw out ſome green ſhoots; which, though diveſted of its roots in England, he planted in his garden, where it took root, and was growing very luxuriantly at the time the veſſel left the iſland, nearly three months from the time they were cut in England.

'I conclude from theſe circumſtances, that they might be uſed to great advantage as a vegetable ſea-ſtore; and that they would afford a moſt wholeſome and agreeable food for ſailors through long voyages, at a time when every other freſh vegetable was entirely ſpoiled.'

The volume cloſes with a very valuable paper by Mr. *Billingſley*, giving a candid and well digeſted account, and, apparently, a very accurate detail, of an experiment made in 1792 on ſix different breeds of ſheep; namely Leiceſterſhire, Cotſwold, Southdowns, Wiltſhire, Dorſetſhire, and Mendip; with a view of aſcertaining their comparative values, as fatting ſtock.

The reſult of this experiment, however, valuable as it certainly is, is not ſuch as to decide this material point without farther trial. It appears that there was ſome remarkable inattention, as well as want of *management*, in the men of Leiceſter; a circumſtance the more extraordinary, as they are not given to negligence in concerns of this nature.

Mr. Billingſley's account of the reſult of this experiment is as follows:

'The reſult of this experiment was not ſo favourable to the Leiceſter breed as at its commencement I thought it would be.

'They were ſent in high condition, and had from their appearance been exceedingly well kept. The change of food and climate appeared to affect them more than the other ſorts, and though they were fed with hay of prime quality, and turnips perfectly ſound and ſweet, they invariably loſt weight the firſt four months; nor did they in the

ſubſequent ſummer months exhibit any great progreſſive improvement, as the ſtatement plainly ſhews: one of them, indeed, appeared by his coat to be unhealthy, and this was confirmed at his death by an apparent defect in the lungs; and conſequently ſome allowance muſt be made for this circumſtance.

'We were alſo told by the great breeders of the North, who attended at the ſociety's annual meeting, when they were ſlaughtered, that Mr. Moore had not done juſtice to his county, for that the ſheep he ſent were the worſt of the kind they ever ſaw. If this be the caſe, Mr Moore is ſurely to be blamed; for as he is one of the Tup Society, he could not be at a loſs for a good ſort, even on a ſuppoſition that he had none of his own.

'The Gloceſter or Cotſwold ſort (the ſheep immediately in competition with the Leiceſter) were the property of Mr. Peacy of Northleach. They appeared to me to be the offspring of a croſs with the Diſhley or new Leiceſter breed, and conſequently approaching very nearly to the ſame ſpecies, only in a larger frame; they conſumed more food, grew more, and ſeemed to be a hardy, uſeful ſheep.

'The Wiltſhire were a tall, bony, thin-carcaſſed ſheep, fit to walk two or three miles to a fold, and to be kept till three or four years old for the purpoſe of manuring a down farm; they ate ravenouſly, increaſed greatly in ſize and weight, but did not fatten.

'The Dorſet, the South-Down, and the Mendip, approach nearly to an equality in point of profit, and may be conſidered as valuable ſorts both to the breeder and the grazier; but were I to take my choice of a flock, calculated to endure ſeverity of climate and ſcantineſs of paſture, I ſhould prefer either the South-Down, or the beſt ſort of the native Mendip. And in this idea I am juſtified by obſervations made in the courſe of this experiment.

'In the winter ſeaſon, when the Leiceſter, the Cotſwold, the Wilts, and the Dorſet ſorts, were unceaſingly devouring hay and turnips, the South-Down and the Mendip were traverſing the field in ſearch of the ſcanty pittance of graſs then to be found, and I verily think that their wintering was not worth as much as the others by three or four ſhillings per head.

'Theſe ſorts (particularly the Mendip) are ſuſceptible of great improvement, both in the carcaſe and wool, by a more judicious ſelection of rams, and by a more ample proviſion of food for the ewes and lambs during the months of March and April, at which time, according to the preſent plan, they are in a ſtate of ſtarvation.'

We have a charge to bring (a ſecond time) againſt the editor of theſe papers. He frequently neglects to put the author's names at the heads of their reſpective communications: thus giving the reader the trouble of turning to the concluſion before he begins to read, or to the table of contents at the beginning.

The *General Index* is an accommodation to the purchaſers of this work, which well merits their thanks.

ART.

ART. IX. *A Literal Tranſlation from the Original Greek, of all the Apoſtolic Epiſtles:* with a Commentary and Notes, Philological, Critical, Explanatory, and Practical. To which is added a Hiſtory of the Life of the Apoſtle Paul. By James Macknight, D. D. Author of a Harmony of the Goſpels, &c. 4to. 4 Vols. pp. 2366. 5l. Boards. Elmſley, &c. 1795.

WE are happy in finding ourſelves again required, after an interval of many years, to pay our *devoirs* to that reſpectable veteran in biblical literature, Dr. Macknight. Of his former learned and uſeful labours, in illuſtration and defence of the goſpels, we ſaw reaſon, at their firſt appearance, to expreſs our hearty approbation. To the account which we gave of theſe works, publiſhed under the titles of "A Harmony of the Four Goſpels," and "The Truth of the Goſpel Hiſtory ſhewed," we refer our readers for particular information concerning their deſign and merit: ſee M. R. vol. xiv. p. 37. and vol. xxx. p. 190.

A ſpecimen of the preſent work was, ſeveral years ago, publiſhed under the title of "A New and Literal Tranſlation of St. Paul's *firſt* and *ſecond* Epiſtles to the Theſſalonians, with a Commentary and Notes," and it was noticed with approbation, in M. R. vol. lxxvi. p. 471, &c. We have now to congratulate both the author, and the public, on the completion of this laborious and uſeful undertaking. The perſeverance with which this worthy divine has continued, through a long life, to employ his learning and ingenuity on this important ſubject, is entitled to high commendation. Four large volumes of tranſlation, commentary, and diſſertation, cannot have been produced without diligent reſearch, and patient ſtudy; and it ought to be mentioned as a circumſtance which conſiderably enhances the merit of this labour, that it has been continued and completed during a period in which biblical learning had been growing unfaſhionable, and in a part of the kingdom which, as we formerly remarked, notwithſtanding its high character in other branches of knowlege, has produced very few writers in this department of literature. The public, we have no doubt, will be unanimous in beſtowing on the author of theſe volumes the praiſe of laudable intention and meritorious exertion; and we apprehend that few perſons, who ſhall peruſe this work with competent judgment and with a due reſpect for the ſacred writings, will heſitate to acknowlege that Dr. Macknight is alſo entitled to approbation and applauſe as a faithful tranſlator, a learned and able commentator, an ingenious eſſayiſt, and a pious divine. The proofs of the propriety of this judgment we ſhall leave our readers to collect, from the details which we ſhall lay before them in this and a ſubſequent article; beyond which the preſent very urgent calls on our atten-

tion will not permit us to enlarge our account of this extenſive publication.

The work opens with an ample general preface; the chief objects of which are, to ſtate the reaſons which induced the author to undertake a performance of this ſort, after the many verſions of the ſcripture already publiſhed, and to explain the principles on which this tranſlation is formed. An account is here given of ſeveral antient tranſlations of the New Teſtament, particularly the Syriac in the eaſt, and the Latin, or Italic, in the weſt. This latter verſion, which is conjectured to have been made in the ſecond century, after having paſſed through correction by Jerome and others, was called the Vulgate, and was in high eſtimation in the European churches. Dr. M., in order to ſhew the neceſſity of a new tranſlation, remarks that moſt of the ſubſequent tranſlators, copying the Vulgate, adopted many of its errors. That this muſt have been the caſe with our Engliſh tranſlators, in particular, is proved by obſerving that all of them, from Tindall downwards, implicitly copied Wickliffe's verſion, which was profeſſedly derived from the Vulgate; making ſcarcely any other alteration than that of changing ſome of the obſolete phraſes into modern Engliſh. Dr. M. admits that the Vulgate was a literal tranſlation, faithfully made according to the ſkill of the tranſlators; and he contends that every tranſlation of writings acknowleged to be inſpired ought to be literal, becauſe a free tranſlation can only be conſidered as a paraphraſe, in which the tranſlator gives his own ſenſe of them. For this reaſon, he profeſſes to have made his new verſion of the apoſtolic epiſtles as literal as the nature of the two languages would permit, without conſidering what opinions, or ſyſtems, it might favour. To enable his readers to judge of the fidelity of his tranſlation, and to perceive, at once, in what reſpects it differs from the tranſlation in common uſe, he has in the larger edition (for two editions of the work are publiſhed *,) followed Origen's plan by printing the common verſion in a column oppoſite to the new tranſlation, and by placing the Greek original in a ſeparate column between the two tranſlations; that the learned may the more eaſily compare them with the original, and judge to which of the verſions the preference is due.

The new tranſlation of the apoſtolic epiſtles being the moſt important part of this work, we ſhall aſſiſt the reader's judgment by diſtinctly ſtating the cauſes aſſigned by the author for the errors which he diſcovers in the Vulgate, in Wickliffe's verſion, and in others which have too ſervilely copied him;

* Dr. M. has given an impreſſion in 3 vols. 4to. in which the Greek text is omitted: price 3l. 15s. boards.

annexing,

annexing, under each head, a ſpecimen or two of the old tranſlation and the new.

1. The Vulgate, following too cloſely the order of the words of the original, has miſrepreſented the meaning of ſome paſſages, and has rendered others obſcure; as in the following examples:

Old Tranſlation.

Rom. i. 17. For therein is the righteouſneſs of God revealed from faith to faith.

Rom. xvi. 26. But now is made manifeſt, and by the ſcriptures of the prophets, according to the commandment of the everlaſting God, made known to all nations for the obedience of faith.

1 Tim. iv. 1, 2. Giving heed to ſeducing ſpirits, and doctrines of devils; ſpeaking lies in hypocriſy, having their conſciences ſeared with an hot iron.

New Tranſlation.

Rom i. 17. For the righteouſneſs of God by faith is revealed in it in order to faith.

Rom. xvi. 26. But is now made manifeſt, and by the commandment of the eternal God, in the prophetic writings, is made known to all the Gentiles in order to the obedience of faith.

1 Tim. iv. 1, 2. Giving heed to deceiving ſpirits, and to doctrines concerning demons, through the hypocriſy of liars, who are ſeared in their own conſcience.

2. Our tranſlators, following the Vulgate, have ſometimes miſrepreſented the meaning of the ſacred writers, by altering the order of the words of the original.

Old Tranſlation.

Rom. v. 18. Therefore as by the offence of one, *judgment came* upon all men to condemnation, even ſo, by the righteouſneſs of one *the free* gift came upon all men to juſtification of life.

New Tranſlation.

Rom. v. 18. Well then, as through one offence *ſentence* (from ver. 16.) *came* upon all men to condemnation, even ſo, through one righteouſneſs *ſentence came* upon all men to juſtification of life.

3. The Vulgate, and the verſions which have followed it, have ſometimes rendered the ſenſe obſcure, and even faulty, by tranſlating the words of the original in their moſt common ſignification, when the context required the words to be taken in a ſenſe equally liberal, but more uncommon.

Old Tranſlation.

Rom. viii. 8. So then, they (εν σαρκι οντες) that are in the fleſh, cannot pleaſe God.

Rom. xi. 2. Wot ye not what the ſcripture ſaith of Elias, how he maketh interceſſion to God againſt Iſrael, &c.

Rom. xi. 17. And if ſome of the branches be broken off, and thou

New Tranſlation.

Rom. viii. 8. Wherefore they who *live* * in the fleſh cannot pleaſe God.

Rom. xi. 2. Know ye not what the ſcripture ſaith to Elijah, when (εντυγχανει τω θεω) he complaineth to God againſt Iſrael.

Rom. xi. 17. Now if ſome of the branches were broken off, and thou,

* One of the ſenſes of ειμι.

thou being a wild olive wert grafted in amongſt them, and with them partakeſt of the root, &c.

thou, who art a wild olive, art engrafted (ει) inſtead of them, and with them, &c.

Qu. *How could a wild olive be engrafted among broken off branches and partake*, &c.

4. The Vulgate, and the verſions which have followed it, have erred in tranſlating the ſcriptures ſo literally as to neglect ſupplying the elliptical expreſſions, of which there are many in the apoſtolic epiſtles.

Old Tranſlation.

1 Cor. iv. 3, 4. With **me** it is a very ſmall thing that I ſhould be judged of you, or man's judgment: yea, I judge not mine own ſelf; for I know nothing by myſelf.

Rom. ii. 29. Circumciſion is that of the heart, in the ſpirit and not in the letter, whoſe praiſe is not of men, but of God.

New Tranſlation.

1 Cor. iv. 3, 4. To me it is a very ſmall matter, that I be condemned by you, or by human judgment, (αλλα) becauſe I do not condemn myſelf; for I am conſcious to myſelf of no *fault*.

Rom. ii. 29. Circumciſion is of the heart, in the ſpirit not in the letter *of the law*: of this man the praiſe, &c.

5. The Vulgate, and moſt of the modern verſions, have miſrepreſented the meaning of ſome paſſages, by ſupplying the ellipſes improperly. In St. Paul's writings, the words wanted to complete the ellipſes are commonly contained in the clauſe preceding, or following, the elliptical expreſſion, and are to be ſupplied from the context; thus:

New Tranſlation.

Rom. ii. 12. As many as have ſinned without law ſhall periſh without *being judged by* law: [from the ſubſequent clauſe,] and as many as have ſinned under law, ſhall be judged by law.

Rom. vii. 24, 25. Who will deliver me from the body of this death? I thank God *who delivers me* [from the preceding clauſe] through Jeſus Chriſt.

6. The Vulgate, and in general all the modern tranſlators, by rendering the Greek particles uniformly by the ſame word, have in many inſtances entirely changed the ſcheme of the Apoſtle's diſcourſe, and thereby have introduced great obſcurity and confuſion into their tranſlation. For example;

Old Tranſlation.

Rom. x. 3, 4. They have not ſubmitted themſelves to the righteouſneſs of God; for (γαρ) Chriſt is the end of the law for righteouſneſs, &c.—This tranſlation of γαρ falſely repreſents Chriſt's being the end of the law for righteouſneſs to every one that believeth, as the *reaſon why* the Jews did not ſubmit to the righteouſneſs of God: but if γαρ be tranſlated in its adverſative

verſative ſenſe, the reaſoning will appear beautiful: they have not ſubmitted to the righteouſneſs of God, although Chriſt, &c.

7. The editors and tranſlators of the Greek Teſtament have frequently perverted or obſcured the ſenſe by wrong pointing. Theſe errors Dr. Macknight has attempted to correct; as in the following examples:

Rom. v. 11. ſeparated from ver. 12. by a comma only, will give the following meaning: We (namely the Gentiles as well as the Jews) have received the reconciliation, for this reaſon, as by one man, &c.

Heb. viii. 8. If a comma be put after γαρ, the tranſlation will be; "But finding fault with it" (namely the old covenant) "he ſaith to them, Behold the days come, &c."

Oppoſite to the new tranſlation, Dr. M. has placed an interpretation or commentary, of which his own account is this: Although in his tranſlation of the apoſtle's words, the tranſlator has leaned to none of the ſchemes of doctrine adopted by the different denominations of Chriſtians, yet, in the commentary, he has ſubmitted to his readers, though not always with the ſame aſſurance, what he judges to be the meaning of the inſpired writings. This interpretation he has called a commentary rather than a paraphraſe; becauſe, for the moſt part, he has adopted the words of the tranſlated text as more expreſſive of the apoſtle's meaning than any paraphraſes which he could give, and has made the interpretation by explaining the ſcope and connection of the apoſtle's reaſoning, and by adding to the text ſuch particulars as the apoſtles have omitted, becauſe the perſons to whom they wrote were well acquainted with them, but which, to render the meaning of the text plain, muſt be ſuggeſted to the unlearned reader. Theſe additions, being ſhort notes, are printed in Roman characters, to diſtinguiſh them from the words of the text, which are printed in Italics.—The following are joint ſpecimens of the new tranſlation and commentary.

New Tranſlation.

1 Cor. vii. 36, 37. But if any thinketh he acteth improperly towards his virgin, if he be above age *unmarried*, and ſo needs to be married, (ὁ θελει ποιειτω) let him do what ſhe inclineth; he does not ſin: but he who ſtandeth firm in his heart, not having neceſſity, and hath power concerning his own will, and hath determined this

Commentary.

1 Cor. vii. 36, 37. As to your queſtion concerning fathers who have virgin daughters: *if any father is of opinion that he acteth improperly towards his virgin daughter, if ſhe be above age, unmarried, and ſo needs to be married*, whether the neceſſity ariſeth from her conſcience, or inclination, or her being ſought in marriage, let the

this in his own heart, to keep his virgin, doth well.

father do what ſhe inclineth: he doth not ſin in complying with her inclination; let ſuch virgin daughter marry. But *he who continueth firmly perſuaded in his own mind*, that it is no ſin in his daughter to remain unmarried, *and is under no neceſſity*, from her opinion, or inclination, or circumſtances, to give her in marriage, and hath the direction of his own will in that affair, being a freeman and not a ſlave, *and hath determined this in his own mind to keep his daughter* unmarried, agreeably to her own inclination, doth what is preferable.

1 Cor. x. 19—21. What then do I affirm? that an idol is any thing? or that an idol-ſacrifice is any thing? No; but that what the heathen ſacrifice, they ſacrifice to demons, and not to God. Now I would not have you to become joint partakers with demons. Ye cannot drink the cup of the Lord and the cup of demons: ye cannot partake of the table of the Lord and the table of demons.

1 Cor. x. 19—21. *What then do I affirm? that an idol is a real god*, contrary to what I have always taught you? or *that an idol-ſacrifice is a ſacrifice to a real divinity. I affirm neither of theſe; but that what ſacrifices the heathens offer, they offer to demons, not to Gods. Now, I would not have you*, by eating their ſacrifices, *to become joint partakers with* the votaries of *demons*, either in their worſhip, their principles, their practices, or their hopes. Beſides, as the worſhip of God conſiſts of holy affections and virtuous actions, but the worſhip of demons in debauchery, *ye cannot* conſiſtently *drink the cup of the Lord and the cup of demons: ye cannot partake of the table of the Lord and the table of demons.*

1 John, v. 6. This is he who came by water and blood, even Jeſus the Chriſt: not by the water only: but by the water and the blood: and it is the ſpirit who witneſſed, becauſe the ſpirit is truth.

1 John, v. 6. We have reaſon to believe that Jeſus is the Son of God. *For this is he who was proved to be the Son of God by his baptiſm and death, even Jeſus the Chriſt; not by his baptiſm only*, when he was declared God's Son by a voice from heaven, *but alſo by his death*, when the ſame thing was demonſtrated by his reſurrection. And it is the ſpirit who bear witneſs by miracles, becauſe the ſpirit is a true witneſs: he can neither be deceived, nor deceive.

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The verſe which immediately follows the laſt quotation, the authenticity of which is ſo much controvertrd, Dr. Macknight has choſen to retain in the text; not, however, without confeſſing that many modern critics of great note conſider it as ſpurious, and ſtating in the notes ſome of the leading arguments on this point.

From the preceding ſpecimens of Dr. M.'s new tranſlation, the reader will perceive that his great object has been to give a ſtrictly literal and conciſe verſion of the apoſtolic epiſtles. Perhaps his notion of inſpiration may have induced him to adhere too ſcrupulouſly to the letter of the text: this circumſtance, however, has rendered the tranſlation a very exact repreſentation of the original. If there be any exception to this, it is where the author is drawn aſide from his general plan, by attempting to ſupply the ellipſes of the original from the preceding or ſubſequent context.

This tranſlation differs in ſeveral material points from the old one, but in nothing more eſſentially than in the various ſignifications which the tranſlator has given, in different places, to the ſame Greek particles. He has here allowed himſelf a degree of latitude which may not perhaps be altogether allowable: but he has not done it without an elaborate attempt to juſtify himſelf in one of the preliminary eſſays, which we ſhall hereafter notice; and it appears to us that the liberties which he has taken in this way have, on the whole, contributed to the improvement of his verſion. Of the tranſlation in general, we entertain a confident expectation that it will be found worth the labour which the learned author has beſtowed on it, and will prove a valuable help to the ſtudent in biblical literature. We do not, however, conceive that this verſion of the ſcriptures can ever be brought into general uſe; for this reaſon, among others, that the tranſlator, in making his verſion literal, has rendered it harſh and inharmonious. Cloſeneſs of interpretation is unqueſtionably the principal thing: but our old Engliſh verſion, both of the Old and New Teſtament, affords a proof that the two objects of exactneſs and harmony are not incompatible. The ſame has alſo more lately appeared in Mr. Wakefield's tranſlation of the New Teſtament, which is ſufficiently literal, and at the ſame time very harmonious. By the way, though this tranſlation is a very late production, and though the author's ſyſtem is too heretical to be approved by Dr. Macknight, we cannot but be ſurprized to find ſo accurate a verſion, by a writer confeſſedly of deep biblical erudition, wholly overlooked in the preſent work. Mr. Wakefield's tranſlation did not probably appear till after Dr. M.'s was written: but the Doctor, in reviſing his work, might have met with ſome things

things in Mr. W.'s verſion and notes not unworthy of his notice.

In the commentary, Dr. Macknight, like all other commentators, follows the bias of his theological ſyſtem. Where controverted points are concerned, he approaches nearer to the tenets commonly deemed orthodox, than many other modern expoſitors. On the ſubjects of the perſon of Chriſt and the atonement, his commentary ſupports the opinions which were maintained in his former works, and on which we ſaw occaſion to make ſome remarks in our Review of his "Truth of the Goſpel Hiſtory." As a theological commentator, Dr. M. ranks rather with Whitby and Doddridge, than with Locke, Taylor, Benſon, Pierce, and Hallet. His commentary will, however, we have no doubt, be allowed, even by thoſe who moſt widely differ from the Doctor in opinion, to bear ſtrong marks of learning and ingenuity, and, in the main, to furniſh an uſeful auxiliary to the biblical ſtudent.

The Notes and Eſſays will be the ſubject of a future article.

ART. X. *The Mæviad.* By the Author of the Baviad *. 4to. pp. 62. 3s. Nicol. 1795.

THE author of the Mæviad, following the example of Pope, continues to laſh a race of poets who, in a former work entitled the Baviad, experienced his correction. He thinks that the tribe of Bell, as he terms the Della Cruſcan phalanx, are not ſufficiently baſtinadoed; and he therefore makes them again paſs in review and run the gauntlet, that his ſentence of their demerits may be confirmed, and that he may have the ſatisfaction of again applying his cat o' nine tails to their backs. We cannot think that this was neceſſary. If the writers, whom he ſo ſatirically criticiſes, were ſo contemptible, the Baviad was ſatire enough, and the repetition of the ſtroke muſt be of the nature of Falſtaff's valour in ſtabbing the dead Hotſpur. This looks like ill-nature, particularly when it is united with harſh and ungentlemanlike expreſſions; and remarkably ſo when ſpeaking of ladies, as is ſometimes the caſe in the notes to this New Dunciad. The author unqueſtionably poſſeſſes poetical taſte and powers; and, when he paſſes, towards the concluſion of the poem, from his ſtrictures on or rather ridicule of Della Cruſca, Arno, Edwin, Lorenzo, Laura, Anna Matilda, &c. to the effuſions of the heart,—when he throws aſide the rod of correction, and ſtrikes the lyre to the theme of friendſhip,—we forget his ſeverity, and enjoy an unmingled plea-

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* See Rev. N. S. vol. viii. p. 93.

ſure.

ſure. This critic in verſe would have us believe that he uſes the rod with reluctance, and that he wiſhes to retire from the office of beadle to the Muſes, to the enjoyment of *otium cum dignitate* on the banks of the Thames, when he may engage in nobler poetic occupations: but, when "his hand was in," he may have thought perhaps that it was as well to laſh on till he was tired. Thus he ſpeaks of himſelf and of his object in the poem before us:

'An hour may come, ſo I delight to dream,
When ſlowly wandering by thy ſacred ſtream,
Majeſtic Thames! I leave the world behind,
And give to fancy all th' enraptured mind.
An hour may come, when I ſhall ſtrike the lyre
To nobler themes: then, then, the chords inſpire
With thy own harmony, moſt ſweet, moſt ſtrong,
And guide my hand thro' all the maze of ſong!
Till then, enough for me, in ſuch rude ſtrains
As mother Wit can give, and thoſe ſmall pains
A vacant hour allows; to range the town,
And hunt the clamorous brood of Folly down;
Force every head, in Bell's deſpite, to wear
The cap and bells, by nature planted there,
Muffle the rattle, ſeize the ſlavering ſholes,
And drive them, ſcourged and wimpering, to their holes.'

Praiſe from the ſatiriſt is peculiarly gratifying; the compliments, therefore, paid at the end of this poem to the Rev. Mr. Ireland, and to Mr. Hoppner the painter, muſt be deemed highly flattering to theſe gentlemen. Here the author writes from the heart; and his recollection of Mr. Ireland, the friend of his early youth, and the companion of his ſtudies, muſt intereſt the reader, becauſe it was felt by the writer:

——————'Yet may the few I love,
For who would ſing in vain! my verſe approve;
Chief thou, my friend! who, from my earlieſt years,
Haſt ſhared my joys, and more than ſhared my cares.
'Sure, if our fates hang on ſome hidden Power,
And take their colour from the natal hour,
Then, IRELAND! the ſame planet on us roſe,
Such the ſtrong ſympathies our lives diſcloſe!
'Thou knoweſt how ſoon we felt this influence bland,
And ſought the brook and coppice hand in hand,
And ſhaped rude bows, and uncouth whiſtles blew,
And paper kites (a laſt, great effort,) flew;
And when the day was done, retired to reſt,
Sleep on our eyes, and ſunſhine in our breaſt.
'In riper years, again together thrown,
Our ſtudies, as our ſports before, were one.
Together we explored the ſtoic page
Of the Ligurian, ſtern tho' beardleſs ſage!

Or

Or traced the Aquinian thro' the Latine road,
And trembled at the laſhes he beſtowed.
Together too, when Greece unlocked her ſtores,
We roved in thought o'er Troy's devoted ſhores;
Or followed, while he ſought his native ſoil,
That old man eloquent from toil to toil;
Lingering with good Alcinoüs o'er the tale,
'Till the eaſt reddened, and the ſtars grew pale.
'So paſt our life; till fate, ſeverely kind,
Tore us apart, and land and ſea disjoined,
For many a year: now met, to part no more,
The aſcendant Power, confeſſed ſo ſtrong of yore,
Stronger by abſence, every thought controuls,
And knits in perfect unity our ſouls.
'O Ireland! if the verſe that thus eſſays
To trace our lives "even from our boyiſh days,"
Meet thy applauſe; the world beſide may rail——
I care not——at the unintereſting tale:
I only ſeek, in language void of art,
To ope my breaſt, and pour out all my heart;
And, boaſtful of thy various worth, to tell,
How long we loved, and thou canſt add, HOW WELL!'

A conſiderable portion of learning and ſprightlineſs is diſplayed in the notes to this poem.

ART. XI. *The Cabinet.* By a Society of Gentlemen. 3 Vols. 12mo. 13s. 6d. Boards. Printed at Norwich by March, and ſold by Jordan in London. 1795.

WE have breathed the air of liberty, and been in the habit of pleading in her behalf, too long not to feel an inſtantaneous prepoſſeſſion in favour of any undertaking on which her hallowed ſignature is impreſſed;—and though long experience has taught us caution in crediting the profeſſions even of patriots, and has convinced us of the value of diſcretion in ſupporting even the beſt cauſe, yet, when we obſerve evident marks of an honeſt love of freedom, and of a generous ſpirit of philanthropy, we cannot but approve the ardour which ſprings from ſuch a ſource.

The editors of the Cabinet have given a ſignal proof both of their ſincerity and of their courage, by undertaking a periodical work in ſupport of liberty, at the moment in which the freedom of diſcuſſion laboured under reſtraints and diſcouragements. Their declared object is, 'by encouraging a ſpirit of free and diſpaſſionate enquiry, and by providing a liberal inveſtigation of the principles and objects of civil government, to remind their fellow citizens at once of their duties and their rights.' With this view, various political and important ſubjects are promiſcuouſly diſcuſſed with the requiſite decorum, but with

manly and honeſt freedom. Among the more important topics treated in this volume, are, the forms of government; innovation; equality; public ſpirit; party ſpirit; emigration; cultivation of waſte lands; tyrannicide; public funds; rights of juries; annual parliaments; population; education; neceſſity of reform; and the connection of the arts and ſciences with liberty.

The ſyſtem of policy, univerſally maintained in theſe papers, is that which makes the will of the people the ſupreme law: their theoretic idea of a perfect government is that which is founded on the principle of perfect toleration, equal rights, and popular conſent. Nevertheleſs, the authors diſclaim (as muſt every man of ſenſe in the kingdom,) all idea of the equalization of property; and they decidedly pronounce that the general ſum of happineſs would not be increaſed by a parity of condition. With reſpect to the Britiſh Conſtitution, one of theſe writers expreſsly proteſts againſt any attempt to overturn it, in the following paragraph; which is not, as we perceive, contradicted in any part of that volume: (I. p. 100.)

'Here we cannot refrain from ſaying a few words to the admirers of a republican form of government. It appears to us, that it would ill become the friends of peace, and of mankind, to attempt, at the preſent moment, any change in the conſtitution of this country. Practical republicans, if ſuch there be (we however think their exiſtence in any formidable number very queſtionable) muſt be aware that they form a very ſmall minority. Now if the point was perfectly clear and aſcertained, that a republican form of government is preferable to the mixed conſtitution of this country, its advocates ought to know, that being the ſmaller number, they have no right to force their opinion on the majority. Let them reflect on the civil war which muſt be produced by ſuch an attempt; on the uncertain event of ſuch a conteſt; on the poſſibility of its terminating in the moſt abſolute deſpotiſm, or in the moſt uncontrouled licentiouſneſs*; on the certainty of its progreſs being marked by inſecurity of property, of life, and of every thing which men hold moſt dear; let them conſider the very great perſonal riſk which they themſelves incur;——and they will ſurely pauſe, before they endeavour to bring their ſpeculations into practice. But when, in addition to this, it is recollected that the point in queſtion is quite undecided; that the Engliſh conſtitution has in its favour Monteſquieu, and ſome others of the beſt writers on political ſcience; beſides the ſtrong fact of having, for a ſeries of years, produced more happineſs than moſt governments in the world; it muſt appear improper, and even criminal, in theoretical republicans, to endeavour to force by violence their theory into practice at this juncture.'

'* Permanent and abſolute deſpotiſm was the reſult of the efforts of the republican party at Rome. Uncontrouled licentiouſneſs (God knows how permanent it may be) has been the reſult of their efforts in France.'

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In a very ſenſible and temperate paper on tyrannicide, the writer forcibly contends that it is in all caſes unlawful, uſeleſs, and pernicious. Juſtice, it is ſaid, only requires that a tyrant ſhould be prevented from again attempting to injure the people, and that his ſucceſſors ſhould be deterred from imitating his example; which, it is maintained, may be effectually done without inflicting on him capital puniſhment. In a ſubſequent paper, however, on the dangers to which deſpotic princes are expoſed, the writer ſpeaks of the avenging ſword of juſtice as ſuſpended over a tyrant's head. This is the only material inconſiſtency which we have remarked in the publication.

A ſeries of papers commences in the 1ſt volume, containing a brief extract of the hiſtory of the war, drawn up with great accuracy and candour; and, if continued with the ſame attention and judgment with which it is begun, it will form one of the moſt valuable parts of the work. It is introduced by a very ingenious diſcuſſion of the queſtion, whether the preſent revolution has a tendency to carry the French nation back to a ſtate of barbariſm. There is one particular in which we have ſeen reaſon to differ materially from the author of this ſketch. In our Review for Auguſt 1794, p. 453, we have given our reaſons for queſtioning the authenticity of the *Pavia* treaty: this writer, on the contrary, is of opinion that it is genuine. For his arguments on this head we refer to the book p. 167, *et ſeq.* vol. I.

Among the pieces poſſeſſed of ſuperior merit, we muſt mention, beſides the ſketch of the war, the paper on innovation, which proves that the excellencies and advantages of the Britiſh Conſtitution are to be traced to this ſource; that on population, in which it is ingeniouſly maintained that population may become exceſſive, and require palliative expedients; a very temperate and well-written eſſay on party-ſpirit; a paper on the cultivation of waſte lands, in which it is ably argued that incloſures, even on the preſent ſyſtem, are beneficial to the poor; an elegant eſſay to prove, both from theory and hiſtory, that Liberty is friendly to the arts and to the ſciences; and a very ſtriking paper on the influence of ſome human inſtitutions on human happineſs.

Several papers on ſubjects of polite literature, and a few pieces of poetry, are introduced.—They are not deſtitute of merit, but they make too inconſiderable a figure in the publication to require particular notice; and, indeed, they are ſo foreign from its leading deſign, that, we think, it would have been more judicious to have omitted them altogether.

In a new edition, we would adviſe the Editors to be more ſevere in their ſelection. If it be their object to provide politics for the cloſet, there ſhould be more depth of inquiry; if for the parlour, they ſhould cultivate more the arts of embelliſhment.

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It has been reported that this collection is not the work of authors by profession, but consists of the volunteer contributions of young men belonging to the polished classes of a provincial town.—In this case, it merits much attention, as symptomatic of the opinions which are gaining ground in the country.

ART. XII. *A Letter to the Earl of Lauderdale*, containing Strictures on his Lordship's Letters to the Peers of Scotland. By John Gifford, Esq. 8vo. pp. 179. 3s. 6d. Longman. 1795.

MUCH as we differ in political sentiments from this author, we cannot but praise his manliness in fairly setting his name to a letter, which it must be impossible for the noble Lord, who is the object of it, to peruse with indifference; nor will we hesitate to give our opinion that the reader of this tract will discover, even *in limine*, that it comes from the pen of an elegant writer, and an able reasoner. Harsh things he certainly says, though not in a coarse way; and it must be acknowleged that his philosophy is rather inflammable in its nature, and occasionally blazes out.

We cannot state in a more summary way what Mr. Gifford *undertook to prove* when he sat down to write, than by giving an extract in which the author himself sets forth, towards the end of his work, what he *has proved* in it:

'I have proved from the confessions of every party which has successively swayed the councils of France, that the war is on the part of our enemies, a war of aggression, a war of conquest, a war of annihilation:—that, on our part, it is, in the strictest application of the term, a war of self defence, a war which has for its object, the preservation, not only of our political independence, but of our laws, our religion, our constitution, our national rights, as Britons, our social comforts, as men. As it originated in necessity, so does necessity imperiously prescribe its continuance, until the grand object for which we contend shall be obtained, by the solid establishment of a peace, concluded on honourable terms, and calculated to be permanent.—That no *such* peace can be concluded with the present mock-government of France, must, I think, appear evident, to all who have marked the progress of the revolution with an attentive eye.—In vain do they uphold a system of *comparative* moderation:—I have shewn that with them originated those projects of aggrandizement, which threaten with destruction the balance of power in Europe; and those schemes of *emancipation*, which tend to disorganize the social system, and to annihilate all existing governments.—I have shewn that their object is the same as that of the Jacobins, and differs only in the mode of attainment. I have shewn also, that the present rulers cherish the same inveterate animosity against this country, as was displayed by the partisans of Brissot, and the followers of Robespierre.—I have proved that they have, themselves, by the annexation of the territories of our allies to

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the dominions of the republic, thrown obſtacles in the way of a peace, which they not only evince no diſpoſition to remove, but betray a ſettled determination to preſerve.—And I have farther proved, by the frequent violations of their faith, ſolemnly plighted and deliberately broken, that no confidence can be repoſed in them.—With men ſo unprincipled, with a government ſo unſtable,—no permanent peace can, I contend, be concluded. *Briſſot* has juſtly obſerved,—"There is no making an alliance,—there is no *treating* with Anarchy!" That deſirable object, probably *moſt* deſired by thoſe who ſay the leaſt about it, can only be attained by a vigorous proſecution of the war.'

Mr. G. at his outſet tells Lord Lauderdale that it is not his intention to examine his lordſhip's work with a critic's eye, in reſpect to its 'ſtyle, diction, and phraſeology,' but to take to himſelf the taſk of pointing out the inconſiſtencies, errors, and miſrepreſentations which (he tells us) he finds in it *? 'Were I, (ſays he) to include *ignorance* in the liſt of defects, I ſhould not exceed the truth. This is free language, my lord; but you have ſet me the example'—"it ſuits the nature of the times." Lord L. had laid it down, as a maxim, that the deſtruction of the old government of France was eſſential to the ſecurity of England. This propoſition Mr. G. controverts and moſt directly denies; and on this occaſion he undertakes an office by no means popular, that of defending the old French government. It muſt not be underſtood that he defends its abuſes, nor that he is on this head an advocate for deſpotiſm: on the contrary, he inveighs againſt abuſes, but deſires it to be conceded to him that it is unjuſt to argue *ab abuſu ad uſum*. He combats deſpotiſm, and maintains that, in the eye of the French conſtitution, it was as odious as in that of the conſtitution of England; that by the French conſtitution deſpotiſm was repreſſed; in a word, that it could not exiſt while that conſtitution was maintained. He complains that the words *deſpotiſm* and *monarchy* are unjuſtly confounded by thoſe who ſpeak of the old government. He calls in the aid of hiſtory, and the authority of Monteſquieu, to prove that arbitrary power was no part of the French ſyſtem; and that the good of the people was the object of thoſe who formerly legiſlated for France.

Having defended the monarchy from the charge of deſpotiſm, Mr. G. proceeds to repel that of profligacy and tyranny brought by Lord L. againſt the nobility and clergy of France. On this topic, he ſays, he can ſpeak from his own knowlege; and his character of theſe two claſſes of men is, on *the whole*, greatly to their credit and advantage.

* For our account of Lord Lauderdale's *Addreſs to the Peers of Scotland*, ſee Rev. N. S. vol. xvi. p. 157.

He

He next proceeds to controvert the description given by Lord L. of the situation of the lower orders of people in France. We cannot follow him in his observations on this head, though they are certainly well worth reading. As Lord L. had grounded all that he said respecting the situation of the lower orders of the people of France, on the authority of Mr. Arthur Young's Travels through that country, Mr. G. takes an opportunity of glancing at that gentleman by the way; and he contends that the French labouring people lived as comfortably as any, and much more comfortably than many, of the same description in other parts of Europe.

Mr. G. labours to prove that the inequality of taxation, of which so many complaints have been made, was by no means so favourable to the privileged orders, and so unfavourable to the commons of France, as it is represented; and he winds up the subject of the unequal distribution of taxes, with the following observation:

'Without entering into farther particulars, it will suffice to observe, that by a formal declaration of M. Neckar to the constituent assembly, it appeared that all the pecuniary exemptions, enjoyed by the privileged classes, did not exceed annually in value, seven millions of livres (something less than two hundred and ninety-two thousand pounds); that the exemptions appertaining to the privileged members of the Tiers Etat, amounted to one half of that sum; and that the *Droits de Contrôle* *, and the high capitation tax, (proportioned to their rank,) paid by the nobility and clergy, made ample amends to the revenue for the partial exemptions they enjoyed from other taxes. Thus, my Lord, the rash assertion, that the privileged classes under the old government, did not contribute their portion to the support of the state, stands contradicted by one, whose competency to decide on the subject, no man will presume to deny!'

To Lord L.'s declaration, p. 47, that the government of France died a natural *death*, without exciting the lamentations of any, our author opposes a great number of counter-declarations, many of which are certainly supported by fact: but, not to go into a long detail, the drift of which is to prove that those who wished for the downfal of that government were by no means what could be called the people, and that the general voice of the nation, expressed in the instructions of the constituents to their representatives in the first assembly, was for an hereditary monarchy, &c. we will briefly quote a part of the

'* The *Contrôle* was a duty imposed on public deeds; it was regulated by the sums specified in the deed, and the rank of the parties who subscribed it. So that noblemen, of course, paid a very high duty, when the inferior orders paid a very low one. Thus what the privileged classes gained by one regulation, they lost by another.'

written inſtructions from the commons, who thus directed their members:

" Let our deputies, before they attend to any other object, aſſiſt in giving to France, a truly monarchical conſtitution, which muſt invariably fix the rights of the king and of the nation.—Let it be declared that the monarchical is the only form of government, admiſſible in France;—that, in the king alone, as chief of the nation, is veſted the power of governing according to the laws; that the ſucceſſion to the throne of France, from male to male, being acknowledged and confirmed by an expreſs declaration, the ſolemn oath to maintain Louis the ſixteenth, in the poſſeſſion of all his rights, ſhall be renewed, &c. &c. *"

After this our author thus ably interrogates Lord L.

' Do the crowds of emigrants which throng the towns of England, Italy, Ruſſia, and the empire,—do the numerous battalions of French, gallantly fighting beneath the banners of the different powers at war with France,—do the martial bands whoſe heroic atchievements have immortalized their names, and who have gallantly maintained the cauſe of royalty, on the banks of the Loire,—do the ſlaughtered thouſands in the fields of Flanders, and Alſace,—do the torrents of blood which have overflowed the plains of La Vendée,—do the countleſs numbers which have fallen beneath the axe of the guillotine, and by other republican engines of deſtruction,—do theſe beſpeak the quiet tranſition of a *natural* death?—Do theſe indicate a *patient acquieſcence* in the deſtruction of the monarchy?—Do theſe betray the feelings of reſignation on an *unlamented* diſſolution?—Or do they not rather reſemble the violent ſtruggles produced by thoſe dreadful convulſions of nature, which ſtrike the inhabitants of the earth with terror, and ſeem to threaten univerſal deſtruction? Indeed, my Lord, you trifle too much with the underſtandings of your readers; you inſult too groſsly the common ſenſe of your conſtituents; you ſet the dictates of reaſon at defiance, and riſe ſuperior to the emotions of ſhame!'

Mr. G. next directs his attention to the new ſyſtem eſtabliſhed in France, to the meaſures of adminiſtration in England, and to the conduct of their opponents; and he obſerves that he cannot conceive how men, ſincerely attached to the ſpirit and forms of the Britiſh conſtitution, could bring themſelves to admire a ſpecies of government adopted by the conſtituent aſſembly of France, 'in which all thoſe gradations of rank and power which conſtitute the beauty of *our* conſtitution, all thoſe mutual checks which tend to prevent an undue preponderance in any of its component parts, and to render diſcordant intereſts and contending paſſions of individuals ſubſervient to the welfare and happineſs of the community, were rejected with diſdain;

' * De l'État de la France, préſent et à venir. pp. 123, 124, 125, 126, *bis*.'

and

and in which, in ſhort, little more of monarchy than the name was ſuffered to remain.'

The war is the next ſubject of our author's conſideration; and here he combats Lord Lauderdale's aſſertion 'that the French were univerſally anxious to avoid hoſtilities; and that the motives alleged by the friends to the war in England are inſufficient to afford a juſtification of it.' He admits that the French would have rejoiced to find us determined, come what would, to adhere unſhakenly to a ſyſtem of neutrality: but then he inſiſts that it was ſolely 'that they might be enabled to accompliſh, with leſs interruption, the dangerous ſchemes they had in view;' and he maintains that they were not diſpoſed to purchaſe the continuance of the peace with us at the expence of thoſe projects of ambition, which threatened the exiſtence of every ſtate in Europe. Mr. G. takes his proofs of the truth of this aſſertion from the ſpeeches of *Briſſot* and others of the party which then ruled France.

That France was the aggreſſor, our author remarks, appears from the charge brought againſt Briſſot, who was accuſed of having involved the nation in a war with England; a charge which he, in his defence, retorted on the Robeſpierrian faction; while both, by their crimination and recrimination, acquitted this country. There are two points on which the Britiſh miniſters have been arraigned in our own parliament; one that they had haughtily refuſed to treat with Monſ. Chauvelin, and thus ſacrificed the ſubſtantial intereſts of the people to mere punctilio and etiquette: the other, that they ſhewed their folly as well as their wickedneſs in going to war, becauſe they might, by adhering to a pacific ſyſtem, have *monopolized* the trade of Europe. Our author alertly meets both of theſe two heads of accuſation, and with good ability ſets himſelf to refute them. We ſhould have been glad to quote the paſſages, but we have not room to enlarge.

Mr. G. proceeds to prove that France provoked the war, and to ſtate the famous decrees of the 19th of November 1792, and 15th of December of the ſame year; on which he makes many judicious remarks: but the ſubject is ſo trite that we will not purſue it.

The author now informs his readers that he intends to give the delineation of *Briſſot*'s character in another work, which he is preparing for the preſs, and in which he ſays it will appear to greater advantage: we preſume he means that kind of advantage which the head of a malefactor derives from being placed on a ſpike in a lofty place; for in the work before us he gives a few traits of that character, by no means likely to make it appear amiable in the eyes of the public. He labours

to prove that Briſſot was a very wicked man and a *perjured traitor*, who aimed at the deſtruction of the political and commercial greatneſs of England, and was at war, on principle, with every government not formed on the baſis of the rights of man and the ſovereignty and equality of the people.

Loſing ſight of Lord L. for a moment, the author launches out into a bitter invective againſt the Dukes of Bedford and Grafton, which in our opinion might as well have been omitted. Invective is a bad ſubſtitute for argument; it never convinces even when it is well founded; and, when unmerited, it injures the cauſe which it is employed to ſupport.—The neceſſity of proſecuting the war with redoubled vigour, inſtead of throwing down our arms, the author here ſays, is proved even by our loſſes and the ſucceſſes of our enemy.

Mr. G. vindicates the Duke of Portland from the aſperſions thrown on him on account of his junction with Mr. Pitt; gives a favourable explanation of the expreſſion aſcribed to and diſavowed by Mr. Windham, "periſh our commerce, let our conſtitution ſurvive;" and endeavours, with great warmth, eloquence, and ingenuity, to take out the ſting from Mr. Burke's unfortunate alluſion, "the ſwiniſh multitude."

In anſwer to the repeated declaration "that it is madneſs to contend with a nation of 25 millions of people," the author ſays that the population of France is thus exaggerated merely to frighten the confederates into peace. He tells us that he is in poſſeſſion of detailed accounts, 'which he has every reaſon to believe authentic,' ſhewing that in 1789 the whole population of that country did not exceed 22,014,300 inhabitants; from which muſt be deducted the number of perſons, undoubtedly immenſe, loſt to France ſince the revolution, by emigration, war, and the guillotine.

We have now ſketched out the contents of a work, of which it is but juſtice to ſay that it is one of the moſt able and beſt written defences of the war that has yet iſſued from the preſs; and the one that, in point of compoſition, comes neareſt in merit to Mr. Burke's famous "Reflections."

ART. XIII. *The pretended Tomb of Homer:* drawn by Dominic Fivrillo, from a Sketch of M. Le Chevalier. With Illuſtrations and Notes. By C. G. Heyne. 4to. pp. 20. With Plates. 4s. 6d. ſewed. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1795.

M. LE Chevalier, who appears from the preface to be the tranſlator of this learned work, made a drawing at Peterſburgh of the monument called *the tomb of Homer*, which Count Paſh of Krinen was ſaid to have found in the iſland of

Ios, now called Nios. On his return from the north, he communicated this drawing to M. Heyne of Gottingen, who had recently given his ſanction to M. Chevalier's reſearches on the Troad *, and who, being much intereſted reſpecting this pretended tomb of Homer, promiſed to lay before the public his notions on the ſubject. In the work before us he performs that promiſe, and ſhews, in a very ſatisfactory manner, that this monument repreſents the life of Achilles. On one of its four ſides, that hero appears receiving the inſtructions of the Centaur Chiron in archery; on another, he is teaching the daughters of Lycomedes to play on the lyre; on the third, he is diſcovered by the art of Ulyſſes; and the fourth ſide, exhibiting the fight of two Centaurs with a lion and a lioneſs, may be conſidered as a happy emblem of the battles deſcribed in the Iliad. M. Heyne relates, copiouſly, from poets and mythologiſts, the various events in the life of Achilles repreſented on this monument; which he compares with the very few remains of antiquity that relate to the ſame ſubjects.

If this ſarcophagus were really found on the bank of the ſea, in the iſland of Ios, M. Le Chevalier thinks that it may very poſſibly be the ſame monument which was mentioned by Silentiarius, as exiſting in the time of Juſtinian. It is not improbable that the inhabitants of Ios erected it, in order to maintain their pretenſions to the poſſeſſion of the aſhes of Homer; and the life of Achilles was a ſubject very proper to be repreſented on the tomb of his encomiaſt.

This ingenious diſſertation is illuſtrated by good engravings, and learned notes; and it muſt, on the whole, be regarded by the claſſical antiquary as a very curious publication.

ART. XIV. *Tranſlations chiefly from the Italian of Petrarch and Metaſtaſio.* By * * * * * * * *, M. A. Fellow of New College, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 127. 3s. ſewed. Robinſons. 1795.

THE Sonnets of Petrarca, the Father of Italian Lyric Poetry, are ſo beautiful, and afford ſuch delight to readers of ſenſibility, that they have not only been the models of innumerable productions in their own country, but have created admirers and imitators in every part of Europe; and perhaps in none have his diſciples been more numerous than in England. The conſtruction of the ſonnet, however, is ſo unnatural to our language, that it has not only baffled genius, but labour and genius united. The failure of Milton in this ſpecies of poetry has often been mentioned and allowed. The late Mr. T.

* See an account of M. Chevalier's publication on this ſubject, M. R. New Series, vol. xi. p. 96.

Warton, and Mrs. Charlotte Smith, indeed, have acquired fame by the degree of ſucceſs with which their ſonneteering labours have been crowned; yet perhaps they have been leſs happy in their ſonnets than in other poetical compoſitions.

The tranſlation of poetry is difficult at all times, but particularly if cloſeneſs to the original be attempted, not only in the thoughts but meaſures. Dryden and Pope, our beſt tranſlators, (that is to ſay, whoſe verſions of the Claſſics are moſt poetical, and moſt read,) are the leaſt cloſe. The *ſtanza*, in tranſlating the Italian epic poets, ſeems to have been judiciouſly abandoned by late tranſlators. Indeed the peculiar verſification of no Italian poet has been ſo happily preſerved and *naturalized* in our language, as in the three cantos of Dante which Mr. Hayley has tranſlated in *Terza Rima*.

The ingenious tranſlator before us, who poſſeſſes original poetical powers, ſeems to have felt the difficulty of building an original ſonnet in our language, as much as in conſtructing one from the materials of his archetype. Yet in ſpite of all the trammels to which he has ſubmitted, the pieces in this little volume muſt not only gratify the curioſity of ſuch as wiſh to become acquainted with the peculiar merit of Italian poets, but will aſtoniſh thoſe who are already familiar with the originals, by the conſtant fidelity and frequent happineſs with which he has accompliſhed his purpoſe.

The ſecond ſonnet of Petrarch in this work is as happily Engliſhed as the ſtructure of the Italian ſonnet will admit. Indeed there is hardly a feeble line in this verſion. Yet the radical evil of diſtant rhymes keeps the ear in an unpleaſant ſuſpence, which it ſeldom feels from our native meaſures. The third ſonnet, in the original ſomewhat dark and metaphyſical, is not rendered more clear and natural in the tranſlation. The fourth is cloſe, and admirably elaborated; as are the fifth and ſixth, except in the laſt line of the latter, p. 15, which it is difficult to conſider as an heroic verſe:

Ŏnly m̆y fāce ſpĕaks m̄y hĕart's wārm dĕſirēs.

P. 17. We cannot confeſs ourſelves ſatisfied with the line,

'I, whoſe whole breaſt with love's ſoft food was *ſown*.'

Sowing the breaſt with food is a bold metaphor, and ſcarcely Engliſh:—nor is it the exact meaning of

I' che l' eſca amoroſa al petto avea,

literally; I, who had the amorous bait in my breaſt.

The ſonnet which occupies p. 18. ſeems as well rendered as the meaſure will poſſibly allow; and this we ſhall give, as a ſpecimen of Petrarca, in Italian and Engliſh:

" Quel

" Quel vago impallidir, che 'l dolce riſo
D' un' amoroſa nebbia ricoperſe,
Con tanta maeſtade al cor s' offerſe,
Che li ſi fece incontr' a mezzo 'l viſo.
Conobbi allor, ſiccome in paradiſo
Vede l' un l' altro; in tal guiſa s' aperſe
Quel pietoſo penſier, ch' altri non ſcerſe:
Ma vidi l' io, ch' altrove non m' affiſo.
Ogni angelica viſta, ogn' atto umile
Che giammai in donna ov' amor foſſe, apparve,
Fora uno ſdegno a lato a quel ch' i' dico.
Chinava a terra il bel guardo gentile;
E tacendo dicea (come a me parve)
Chi m' allontana il mio fedele amico?"

' That charming paleneſs, that o'erclouding threw
O'er her bewitching ſmiles a love-ſick ſhade,
Came with ſuch winning majeſty arrayed,
That forth my raviſh'd heart to meet it flew.
How ſaints greet ſaints in paradiſe I knew
From that bleſt hour, ſo lively was diſplayed
That tender ſentiment none other read;
But I, who ſtill from her my being drew.
Each angel look, each condeſcending grace
That can on ladies' cheeks, when kindeſt, play,
Compar'd to this, would cold diſdain appear.
She bent to earth her gentle beauteous face,
And in expreſſive ſilence ſeem'd to ſay,
" Who from my ſide my faithful friend would tear?"

The cxxix ſonnet, p. 20, is admirably tranſlated; except the laſt line, in which we think the word *hot* not only unpoetical, but leſs delicate than the original:

D' arder con la mia fiamma non impari.
' To ſhare my flames, and burn with my *hot* love.'

A very ſmall change would perhaps obviate the objection. Suppoſe the laſt line, ſpeaking of a *rock*, were to run thus: " To ſhare my flames, and *feel* my ardent love?" To make a rock *feel* is leſs hyperbolical, and not unuſual in a lover's language.

P. 42. The beautiful ſonnet, *Zefiro torna e'l bel tempo rimena*, ſeems to have been the germ of Metaſtaſio's charming deſcription of the ſpring:

Già riede Primavera
Col ſuo fiorito aſpetto.

Sonetto XLIII. of Petrarca's ſecond book, p. 44, is all beauty, in both the original and the tranſlation.

In the elegy of Arioſto, our elegant tranſlator has judiciouſly abandoned the *terza rima* or *Terzetti* of the original, and has given it in *Quaternarii* ſtanzas of alternate rhymes; the Italian is extremely ſpirited and pleaſing: but by adding

a 4th line to each *terzetto*, he has given new beauties to each stanza.

In the second of Zappa's admirable sonnets, the 7th and 12th lines are objectionable from being translated too literally. Suppose, instead of "He sings so, but because," &c. it were said: For thus he sings, because, &c.? and in the 12th, instead of—"I sing not, no"—nor do I sing, &c.?

The next sonnet by Zappa, on his reconciliation with a cruel mistress, breathes such a spirit of true poetry and feeling, that we cannot withhold it from our readers:

Sonetto del ZAPPA.

" Presso è il dì, che cangiato il destin rio,
Rivedrò il viso, che fà invidia a i fiori,
Rivedrò que' be' occhi, e in que' splendori
L' alma mia, che di là mai non partio;
Giugner già parmi, e dirle; amata Clori;
Odo il risponder dolce, o Tirsi mio.
Rileggendoci in fronte i nostri amori,
Che bel pianto faremo, e Clori, ed io!
Ella dirà; dov' è quel gruppo adorno
De' miei crin, ch' al partir io ti donai?
Ed io: miralo, o bella, al braccio intorno.
Diremo, io le mie pene, ella i suoi guai.
Vieni ad udirci, amor, vieni; in quel giorno
Qualche nuovo sospiro imparerai."

Sonnet by Zappa.

' Soon, by glad change of fate, the day shall wake,
When I shall see that face, whose blushes shame
The flow'rs, and those bright eyes, and in their flame
My soul, which ne'er would that bleft seat forsake:
Methinks e'en now I'm there, and speak her name;
And hear more soft from her "my Thyrsis" break.
As in our looks we read our loves the same,
What glorious moan shall I and Cloris make!
" Where is that knot, which with my hair I bound,
" And gave you when we parted last?" she'll cry:
And I, " Lo! here, my fair, this arm around."
She all her cares will tell, my suff'rings I.
Thou at our side, O Love! that day be found:
Ev'n thou may'st learn some new delicious sigh.'

There seems to be no defect in the original introductory poem to Metastasio's Canzoneti, except the mixture of *thou* and *you*, or the 2d and 3d person, in speaking of the same lady.

In Metastasio's celebrated *Libertà*, the translator has preserved all the original thoughts: but, in this instance, the use of a different measure from that in which it was first written has not added to the grace and melody of the verse. It would be difficult to imitate the double rhymes of this beautiful Canzonet:

zonet: but the ſame metre (in alternate ſingle rhymes) would perhaps be more natural to Engliſh ears, than that which the tranſlator has choſen; as the junction of two different ſtanzas in one has not a good effect: it is playing the firſt ſtrain of the ſame tune in common time, and the ſecond in triple. In the 6th ſtanza, the 5th and 7th lines do not terminate in conſonance. In the 7th ſtanza, the 3d and 4th lines are not very poetical nor elegant. Here, alſo, *you* and *thou* are promiſcuouſly uſed. Many of the ſtanzas, however, are beautiful, and the thoughts of the original are generally preſerved.

In the very beautiful Canzonet, *Ecco quel fiero iſtante*, the tranſlator has judiciouſly arranged the rhymes in the ſame manner as Metaſtaſio, and has dextrouſly avoided the double rhymes. The laſt line of each ſtanza, which is the *refrein*, is, unluckily, a little harſh: 'Thou'lt waſte a thought on me," is much leſs liquid and lyrical than *Ti ſovverrai di me.*

The Cantata entitled *La Tempeſta*, by Metaſtaſio, is admirably tranſlated; and, on the whole, we confeſs that the peruſal of theſe elegant verſions of ſuch well-choſen original poems has afforded us great pleaſure.

ART. XV. *One Cauſe of the preſent Scarcity of Corn*, pointed out, and earneſtly recommended to the ſerious Conſideration of the People; as being, at the ſame Time, a conſtant Source of Wretchedneſs to many Individuals. By a Phyſician. 8vo. 1s. Miller.

WE wiſh to think well of every man's motive for ſitting down to write for publication: but we cannot refrain from apprehending that the author of this little tract has mixed up a few grains of perſonal reſentment with his humanity;—which, nevertheleſs, we are ready to hope, and really believe, forms the baſis of his intentions.

We perfectly agree with this warm and eloquent advocate for the lower order of farmers, that they are frequently oppreſſed and injured through the ignorance and tyranny of the ſtewards employed by great men: but we differ from him in opinion, when he aſcribes the preſent ſcarcity of corn to the reſtrictions impoſed on tenants, 'prohibiting them from cultivating their farms in their own way;' reſtrictions which, we know, have been the cauſe of plenty in various parts of the kingdom. *Injudicious* reſtrictions, we allow, may be miſchievous; and, in the inſtance which this writer drags forth with ſo much indignation, the tenants may be hardly uſed, and the public in a degree injured:—but let not this be brought as an argument againſt reſtriction in general, and of courſe againſt *proper reſtrictions*, for ſuch there certainly are. When the author

thor fays 'It cannot be the tenant's intereſt to exhauſt his land' —he ſhews an unpardonable want either of information or of ingenuouſneſs.

The remarks of this writer reſpecting the monopoly of farms do credit to his intentions, but, like the former topic, reflect little honour on his judgment. His arguments are thoſe of an epicure, rather than of a friend to the poor. We readily grant that the ſmall farmer ſends to market more 'pigs, calves, poultry, eggs, cheeſe, and butter'—to pamper the rich—the parſon, the lawyer, and the *phyſician*—but it is the larger farmer who ſupplies the markets with corn and butcher's meat for the lower orders of the people: a fact that is not ſufficiently known, and indeed does not ſeem to have received any attention in arguments on this ſubject. We have therefore the greater ſatisfaction in bringing it forwards at this time, when there is a general outcry againſt large farms.

Let it not be underſtood that we are advocates for very large farms, nor for farms of any particular magnitude; we think that there ought to be farms of various ſizes, to give employment to men of various capitals: but we beg leave to repeat that it is the middling and the larger farmers, men of capital, ſpirit, and judgment, who feed the poor—who ſend to market the largeſt ſupplies of beef, mutton, bread, and beer, in proportion to the number of acres which they reſpectively hold in poſſeſſion.

ART. XVI. *A Review of Dr. Price's Writings on the Finances of Great Britain.* By William Morgan, F.R.S. Second Edition. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1795.

WE notice a new edition of this valuable performance on account of the annexed ſupplement, containing a ſtatement of the public debt as it ſtands at the preſent year. To thoſe who have not adopted the opinion that the national debt is a mere harmleſs bugbear, but who think it poſſible that a nation as well as an individual may incur all the evils of bankruptcy, this ſtatement cannot but be intereſting, and, we ſcarcely need to add, alarming. In particular, thoſe who have laviſhed ſo much praiſe on the preſent all-powerful head of the financial department, for his vigorous and ſucceſsful efforts towards the extinction of the public debt, muſt admit the importance of a faithful repreſentation of the progreſs that has been made in this weighty concern. We ſhall therefore offer to our readers a ſummary view of what the preſent very intelligent and accurate writer has collected on this ſubject.

He firſt gives the particulars of the *funded debt* in January 1795, which had been incurred previouſly to the year 1784.

Its

Its amount is, *principal*, £.256,964,078; *annual intereſt and management* £.9,172,363. The additions to the *funded debt* ſince 1788 are next ſtated at *principal* £.51,897,251; *intereſt*, *&c.* £.1,830,975. The whole then of the *funded debt* in 1795 is, *principal*, £.308,861,329; *intereſt*, *&c.* £.11,003,338.

The amount of the *unfunded debt* is ſtated at £.13,483,000; its intereſt at 5 *per cent.* £.674,150. If to theſe ſums be added the Imperial loan and its intereſt, which the writer ſuppoſes will be ultimately paid by this country, our national debt and its intereſt will amount to the enormous ſums of £.331,679,329—and £.12,127,488. Mr. M. however allows that ſome deduction ſhould be made from the foregoing ſums, on account of the ſtock which has been purchaſed by the commiſſioners for diſcharging the national debt: but, in order to ſhew what is the real proportion of the debt diſcharged to that remaining, he converts the whole funded and unfunded debt into three *per cents.* and ſtates it at £.383,823,294. His concluſions we ſhall give in his own words:

'In nine years about 14 millions of the Three per Cents. have been paid off, which, according to the foregoing computations, do not amount to $\frac{1}{27}$th part of the whole national debt, or to *nine-pence in the pound*. In leſs than three years a debt has been incurred which, if converted into Three per Cents. would, as appears above, exceed 70 millions:—in other words, the funded debt in the three laſt years is five times greater than the debt diſcharged in nine years. To congratulate the nation, therefore, under ſuch circumſtances on the progreſs that has been made in reducing its debts, is to ſuppoſe it deſtitute of common underſtanding; and the ignorant credulity which can ſuffer itſelf to be deceived by thoſe congratulations, is to be equalled only by the effrontery that can propoſe them. It is of little conſequence, while millions are added to millions every year, that new funds are eſtabliſhed for redeeming thoſe debts. The proviſion which is made for this purpoſe of £.1 per *cent.* per *ann.* will indeed, if invariably applied, diſcharge the principal in 37 years. But in the circumſtances of this country, what conſolation or ſecurity can ſuch remedies afford? for neither our reſources nor our credit are endleſs; and, therefore, if we go on to increaſe our debts at the rate we have hitherto done, it is manifeſt, that long before the termination of 37 years, they muſt be diſcharged in a much more ſummary way than by the operations of compound intereſt.

'If the ways and means in each year be compared with the public exigencies, they will uniformly be found to have fallen ſhort of them, though, at the beginning of the year, the contrary had always been predicted. This, I think, is ſufficiently proved to have been the caſe ſo far as the year 1790, in the 3d chapter of the foregoing treatiſe. In the year 1791 the ſupplies (including £.500,000 taken from the unclaimed ſtock at the bank) were ſtated to be £.14,881,634, and the expenditure £.14,064,656. Between theſe two ſums a difference of £.816,978 was ſuppoſed to remain in favour of the ways and means;

but at the beginning of the next year, inſtead of this promiſed ſurplus in the income, we find a deficiency in it of £.436,990.—In like manner, in the year 1792, the ſupplies were eſtimated at £.11,503,996, and the expenditure at £.11,138,884, which ſuppoſed a balance, in favour of the former, of £.365,182; but, at the concluſion of this year, the balance proved, as it did in the preceding year, to be on the other ſide, and the grants were found to be deficient £.575,325. In the year 1793, though 4½ millions were borrowed, the expenditure exceeded the grants £.824,000; and in the year 1794, after borrowing 11 millions, the deficiency of the grants amounted to £.1,095,000. In the preſent year, including the Imperial loan, our own loan, the vote of credit for the army and navy, &c. &c. the enormous ſum of £.30,583,000 has been already added to the public debts; and if we may reaſon from the experience of the three foregoing years, in which the deficiency of the ſupplies increaſed in proportion to the magnitude of the expenditure, it is probable that the grants in this year will prove more deficient than ever. But does not this circumſtance portend our near approach to the termination of our reſources? for, if this courſe be perſiſted in, of adding millions annually to the public debts, the deficiency of the grants in the preceding year will exeed the intereſt of the new loan in the following year, and it will become neceſſary, even in times of peace, to borrow money every year in order to render the revenue equal to the ordinary expenditure. In ſuch circumſtances no credit can long be ſuſtained; and though the induſtry and enterprize of this nation are undoubtedly very great, yet all induſtry and enterprize muſt ſink at laſt under the continual accumulation of freſh burdens; and ſhould our credit be deſtroyed, it will require more ability than has hitherto been diſplayed by the preſent conductors of our public affairs, to preſerve a nation like ours, overwhelmed as it is with debts and taxes, from bankruptcy and ruin.

'From the year 1784 to the year 1789, new taxes have been laid to the amount of £.1,075,300. In the year 1791 further taxes have been impoſed to the amount of £.820,000. In the year 1793 ſtill further taxes have been laid to the amount of £.480,000; and this year has been diſtinguiſhed, above all others in the annals of the country, by additional taxes to the ſtupendous amount of £.1,600,000: ſo that ſince the commencement of the preſent adminiſtration, the public burdens have been increaſed about 4 millions per annum, or, at leaſt, £.3,800,000, even after deducting thoſe taxes which have been repealed in conſequence of the oppoſition raiſed againſt them from their being conſidered as vexatious and oppreſſive. But it ſhould be remembered, that with all this maſs of taxes we are ſtill involved in the moſt expenſive war that has ever diſtreſſed this country, without a proſpect of its concluſion; and to what magnitude the debts may be further increaſed by the conteſt exceeds all the powers of computation to determine. Were peace to be immediately made, the ordinary expenditure would at leaſt be 20 millions *per annum*.—A ſum which is ſuppoſed to be two millions greater than the yearly rents of all the lands in the kingdom. If, therefore, the annual income ariſing from all the landed property be inſufficient to pay the ordinary expences, and if our commerce, as one of our legiſlators magnanimouſly, though perhaps

perhaps not very wisely declared, must perish rather than the object of this *just and necessary war* should not be attained, there is reason to apprehend, from the present appearance of things, that we are hastening towards a state of difficulty and danger unknown in the history of this country; and that we shall exhibit to the world an awful example of the folly of a commercial nation's preferring war and its ruinous consequences, to the cultivation of trade, and the peaceful enjoyment of all its advantages.

'It was my intention to have made some observations on the terms of the late loan, and also on the course which the commissioners have invariably chosen to pursue, in opposition to the plan originally proposed by Dr. Price, of purchasing stock in the *Three per Cents.* rather than in the *Four per Cents.* But while our debts are yearly increasing twenty times faster than they are paid off, it is of very little consequence how they are contracted, or at what rate of interest the funds are improved by which they are redeemed. I shall therefore take my leave of a subject, which is every day rendered more hopeless; convinced, however, that it will soon want no arguments to enforce it on the most serious attention of this infatuated country.

'April 16, 1795.'

ART. XVII. *Vindication of the Character and Conduct of Sir William Waller, Knt.* Commander in Chief of the Parliamentary Forces in the West: explanatory of his Conduct in taking up Arms against King Charles the First. Written by himself. Now first published from the original Manuscript. With an Introduction by the Editor. 8vo. pp. 140. 6s. Boards. Debrett.

WHY a publication of this nature has been so long delayed, the descendants of Sir William Waller, who possess the manuscript, should have explained; for to have kept this vindication from the public eye during so many years, if they deemed it rational and satisfactory, must be considered as a sin of omission against the reputation of their celebrated ancestor. It is intimated that the circumstances of the present times have contributed to draw it from its obscurity: and, from the tendency of the introduction, it may be presumed that the vindication of Sir William was less an object with the editor in sending this MS. to the press, than the inculcation of the principles which it contains, and of the general inference deducible from its historical details. This motive for publication we do not in the least intend to censure. To lead men to the recollection of past scenes, to invite them to the calm consideration of the lessons of history, is in general to furnish them with the best rules of conduct. The work before us may not be unprofitable in this respect: it is curious; and, though it may fail to interest merely as a vindication of a man who has long ago been removed from the busy theatre of sublunary beings, it will excite some attention as illustrative of the politics of the distracted times to which it refers, and in which the author bore so conspicuous a part.

The

The anonymous editor remarks that the ſtruggle between the Preſbyterian and Independant parties, after the king had fallen into their power, is deſcribed more particularly in this work than in any other memorial of that time; and that on this account alone it forms a valuable addition to the collection of pieces relative to the hiſtory of England at that intereſting period. We are farther informed, as to its date, that it was written previouſly to the reſtoration of the monarchy;—it might perhaps have been added, *not long* before it, and with a view to that event,—at leaſt a part of it.

Sir William begins with ſtating the grounds on which he was induced to engage in the ſervice of the parliament. This he does in a general way: but, conſidering the exalted notions which he appears to entertain of monarchy, he does not ſay enough to juſtify him for taking up arms againſt his king. He ſays that he had no other ends to ſerve than the reformation and maintenance of religion, the preſervation of the perſon, dignity, and honour of the king, and the ſettling of the ſafety and peace of the kingdom: it may be ſo: but an advocate for the divine right makes a very awkward figure when he draws his ſword againſt his king, and that too with the plea of preſerving his perſon, dignity, and honour. He adds that he abhorred the war; if ſo, why was he a commander in chief in it? Diſguſted he no doubt was with it; and he may have written feelingly when he thus ſpeaks of the effect or reſult of their ſucceſs againſt the king, yet ſurely not ſtrictly within the line of truth:

'After the expence of ſo much blood and treaſure, all the difference that can be diſcerned between our former and preſent eſtate is but this; that before this time, under the complaint of ſlavery, we lived like freemen; and now, under the notion of a freedom, we live like ſlaves, enforced by continual taxes and oppreſſions, to maintain and feed our own miſery.'

If the former aſſertion be true, how could he juſtify his reſiſtance to the king? If the complaint of ſlavery were imaginary, and, previouſly to the breaking out of the civil war, they lived like freemen, the part which he took was inſuſceptible of any vindication. We apprehend that the immediate deſcendants of Sir William thought that this work would do him little credit, and that therefore they kindly withheld it from the public.

To the hiſtorical part of this vindication is added a kind of eſſay on monarchical authority, in which Sir William advances many weak poſitions, which the editor would have done well to have ſuppreſſed.

The whole work is compoſed in the quaint ſtyle of the period to which it belongs, interlarded with ſcriptural phraſes. Sir William

William profeſſes to write with impartiality; or, as he phraſes it, 'without blanching a particularity.'

The editor, with a view to the preſent times, deduces in his introduction a general reflection from the hiſtorical part of this work; viz. 'that thoſe who ſcatter the ſeeds of ſedition are unequal to the gathering in of the harveſt, and that the multitude is an engine eaſily to be ſet in motion, but when checked, it recoils with increaſing force upon its mover.' To this obvious reflection we wonder that he did not ſubjoin another equally obvious, and as fairly deducible from this narrative,—on the miſery which muſt ariſe to a ſtate when the military power gains an aſcendancy over, and dictates to, the legiſlative.

ART. XVIII. *An Account of the Colony of Sierra Leone*, from its firſt Eſtabliſhment in 1793; being the Subſtance of a Report delivered to the Proprietors. Publiſhed by Order of the Directors. 8vo. pp. 244. 4s. Boards. Philips. 1795.

THIS account of an infant colony, eſtabliſhed with a view of accelerating the abolition of the ſlave trade, will be peruſed by the friends of humanity with eagerneſs and pleaſure. It is impoſſible not to admire the perſevering zeal of thoſe who are engaged in this laudable undertaking, and not to lament the unavoidable difficulties and misfortunes which have hitherto oppoſed their views and retarded their deſigns.

The Directors, in the introduction to this report, ſtate, as correctly as they are able, the whole expenditure that has taken place, and the preſent ſituation of the funds of the company. On the whole, when reviewing what is paſſed, they are ready to own that they ſee ſome things which, if poſſeſſed of more experience, they might have conducted in a more frugal or advantageous manner; and they perceive that many of the circumſtances, which have ariſen, have been ſuch as no human foreſight could have anticipated, and no human wiſdom have controlled. They look back on many eſcapes and deliverances which the colony has experienced, not through any care or management of thoſe whom the proprietors have appointed to ſuperintend it, but through the help of divine Providence. They look forwards to farther difficulties and dangers; aware that the beginning of colonization has been in general arduous, hazardous, and expenſive. They by no means allow themſelves to indulge any expectations of rapid or uninterrupted ſucceſs; yet they are led, by the gradual advances towards maturity which the colony has already made amid ſo many difficulties, to entertain an increaſing hope of its eſtabliſhment and proſperity.

We are ſorry that our limits will not allow us to enter more fully into this Report, nor to notice the ſeveral heads under which it

it is arranged. Under the division which treats of the civilization of the natives of Africa, the Directors have brought forwards much additional evidence in proof of the cruelty, injustice, and turpitude of the slave trade.

'Let the whole aggregate of misery caused by this iniquitous trade, (say they) be contemplated; let it be remembered that EIGHTY THOUSAND men are annually carried from Africa, torn from their families and their native country by the *civilized* nations of the world,—let the blood spilt in wars, the cutting off of slave-ships, the acts of suicide resorted to by the wretched captives, and the wild and bloody vengeance of the incensed natives on the shore, be borne in mind. Let the moral evil chargeable on this trade be considered, the drunkenness, the treachery, and the violation of all the natural feelings which it occasions, and above all the stop which it puts to the progress of civilization, to the improvement and happiness of one fourth part of the habitable globe; and its enormity must indeed be abundantly evident.'

The Report concludes with an Appendix, giving an account of the natural productions of Sierra Leone, by Mr. Afzelius, botanist to the Society:—to the whole of which is added a report relating to the calamity sustained by the colony, through the depredations of a French squadron. The pecuniary loss to the Company on this occasion is computed to be about £.40,000, exclusive of the buildings destroyed, of which the cost was about £.15,000. It is however with great satisfaction that we find that no events, which have yet happened at Sierra Leone, have in any degree shaken the resolution of the Directors with respect to the prosecution of the great cause in which they are engaged.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For DECEMBER, 1795.

HISTORY, ANTIQUITIES, &c.

Art. 19. *History of the City and County of Lichfield, &c.* 8vo. pp. 117. 2s. 6d. sewed. Robinsons.

THIS small work, to the dedication of which is affixed the name of John Jackson, jun. has nothing either in its contents or manner of writing, that will entitle it to much attention out of the place on which it treats.

Art. 20. *An Historical and Topographical Account of Leominster and its Vicinity*; with an Appendix. By John Price. 8vo. pp. 272. 6s. Boards. Longman. 1795.

In order to render a topographical work interesting beyond the limits of its own circle, it is necessary either that the objects on which it treats should be of some intrinsic importance, or that the writer should have talents for instructing or entertaining the public from his own

own resources. Without one or other of these advantages, they are generally the dullest and most insignificant of publications; for what can less deserve a reader's attention than the usual appendages to borough or conventual history—deeds, grants, and charters of the commonest kinds, lists of municipal and ecclesiastical officers, minute details of local customs, epitaphs, tables of benefactions to the poor, and a long &c. of similar trifles?

The work before us cannot be said to have much claim to distinction above the ordinary productions of its kind. The town of Leominster has not made itself remarkable either in antient or modern history; and the rural plenty for which it is most celebrated affords little matter for description. Mr. P. has, however, taken pains to annex to its history as many as possible of the public events which have occurred in its neighbourhood; among which, the wars with the Welsh, particularly under Owen Glendour, and the attempts in favour of Lady Jane Grey, make the most conspicuous figure, and seem to be related with sufficient exactness. In speaking of the title of nobility which this town confers, we think that the writer has fallen into a mistake respecting Thomas Stuckley, an adventurer in the reign of Elizabeth. This person, having engaged in the service of Spain, on an intended expedition against Ireland, styled himself Baron of Ross, Viscount Murrough, Earl of Wexford, and Marquisse of *Lemster*, which last Mr. P. supposes to refer to this town: but as the rest are all Irish titles, we cannot doubt that *Leinster* was the place intended by Stuckley.

The modern account of the town is less satisfactory in some respects than those given by Leland and Stukeley, for not a word is said of its trade; and the statement of its houses and population, making the former 400 and the latter 3 or 4000, is evidently erroneous. How was it possible to write an 8vo. volume on such a place, and yet omit what was most important to be generally known about it? The accounts, however, of the state of navigation at Leominster, and of the general productions of the country, contain some valuable information; the latter taken chiefly from Mr. Marshall and the Rev. Mr. Lodge.

POLITICAL.

Art. 21. *A Plan for the Periodical Abolition of all Taxes raised by Means of Collectors*: for the full Accomplishment of it seven Parts of the Nation out of eight contribute nothing; and the other Part its very moderate and proportionate Contribution, for one Time only, would, in the End, give to the Successors of the Contributors from 60 to 100 per Cent. for ever, by the Extinction of all the Taxes. Second Edition. 8vo. 1s. Crosby. 1795.

The author of this plan, Signor Graglia, being a native of Piedmont, the inaccuracies of expression with which this tract abounds are very pardonable. The ground of his plan is a supposition that the property of the nation amounts to 5000 millions sterling: that by will, inheritance, or otherwise, the whole of it passes into the hands of new owners at least once in 50 years; and that on an average 100 millions, the 50th part of 5000 millions, thus change hands every year. Building on these *data*, he proposes that an act of parliament

ſhould paſs, obliging every heir to contribute, according to the amount of his property ſo tranſmitted to him, to the formation of a capital or ſinking fund for periodically ſuppreſſing all the taxes now raiſed by means of collectors. The grand feature of the plan is that the heir or poſſeſſor ſhould never be required to contribute to this fund more than once in his life; and that the money ariſing from it ſhould be paid into the treaſury without the intervention of tax-gatherers Our author exempts from this contribution the proprietors of warehouſes, manufactories, or ſhops, not poſſeſſing ſtock in trade to the amount of £.1000: but thoſe who are proprietors of more than the value of that ſum are to contribute according to a rate, always bearing a proportion to their property, up to a particular extent. The whole amount of this rate he eſtimates at *one million* ſterling *per annum*, which, by a tax on lodgers, playhouſes, and other places of public reſort for amuſement, and on bankers' checks, he increaſes to £.1,500,000, clear of all expences. This annual income of £.1,500,000 he propoſes to put out to intereſt at 5 per cent. and the whole to accumulate for five years; ſo that, by the end of 1801, it would form a capital of £.10,202,394, the annual produce of which would be £.511,000. At the end of the five years, he would have ſome of the exiſting taxes to that amount repealed, and the deficiency occaſioned by the repeal made good out of the above ſum of £.511,000. a ſimilar proceſs to take place at the expiration of every 5th year. The firſt tax which he would have repealed is that levied under the name of poor's rates; and he thinks that the fund would be ſufficient, at the end of the firſt five years, to releaſe from the payment of poor's rates all houſekeepers hitherto rated at leſs than 40 ſhillings a year to that tax. He would alſo, as ſoon as poſſible, free the people from the tax which they now pay for a ſupply of water; the proprietors of the water-works to be paid no longer by the houſekeepers, but by the managers of this ſinking fund.

Signor Graglia obſerves that, according to this plan, the produce of the capital to be formed on it would, in the courſe of 70 years, amount to *ſeven millions* a year. The great difference between the fund propoſed by him, and the ſinking fund already eſtabliſhed by law, is that the latter ariſes out of taxes paid every year by the ſame individuals, the former out of a tax never to be paid more than once in his whole life by the ſame perſon. This, however, is true only with reſpect to the tax on property. The advantages of the plan are thus ſtated:

'If Titus leave to his ſon a property of 1000*l.* his contribution at ¾ per cent. would be 9*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* for once in all his life-time; and if he ſhould enjoy fifty years his property, he would have paid 9*s.* 9*d.* a year contribution, including the intereſt of the ſame; on the contrary, ſuppoſing he ſhould only have 10*l.* a year taxes to pay, at the end of fifty years he would be out of pocket of 500*l.* paid for taxes. This is not all: add to the taxes an intereſt only of 6 per cent. in trade, you will ſee, if you take the pen and ink as I have done, and multiply the annual tax with the intereſt, at the end of 50 years he would be out of pocket more than 2000*l.* therefore it is evident that Titus, with his contribution of 9*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* purchaſes an annuity of 10*l.*

to *l.* a year for his ſucceſſor, which gives him more than 80 per cent. by the extinction of the taxes, excluſive of the intereſt; this conſideration alone would be ſufficient to remove every oppoſition on the part of the contributors.'

He illuſtrates his ſubject by another calculation on a larger ſcale. After ſome previous ſtatements of the property of a ſuppoſed individual ſtill called Titus, he thus goes on:

'By this example it appears, that Titus inherits 180,000 *l.* property, beſides an annuity of 4000 *l.* and his contribution amounts to no more than 1406 *l.* to be paid one time only in all the courſe of his life. It is to be obſerved, that this property of 180,000 *l.* as I have ſaid, muſt be clear of all penſions, legacies, annuities, expences, and claims upon it.

'Now I ſhall make a ſhort obſervation to the reader. This contribution of Titus, of 1406 *l.* at the intereſt of 5 per cent. would produce 70 *l.* a year; but if, by this little ſacrifice, Titus delivers his ſucceſſors or poſterity of an annual tax of 300 *l.* a year and perhaps more, upon his landed property only, they would reap a benefit of 230 *l.* a year for ever, beſide the chance of the periodical benefit attended by the reduction of taxes in his life-time.'

Having given the outline of the author's plan, we now leave it to ſpeak for itſelf. For our part, we are much afraid that he has conſiderably over-rated the property of the country, which forms the baſis of his whole ſcheme; and that he is no leſs out of meaſure in his eſtimate of the produce of the propoſed tax on lodgers. Should he be wrong on theſe two points, particularly the former, his building would inevitably fall to the ground. There is one objection to the plan which our author himſelf foreſees and labours to remove, but, we think, not ſucceſsfully. Lodgers certainly do not pay *directly* the taxes with which houſekeepers are charged, but they pay their ſhare of them *indirectly*; for the owners of the lodgings let them according to the amount of their own rent and taxes. Signor Graglia falls into an unpardonable error when he ſays that lodgers do not feel the weight of *any* tax.

We have extended our account of this ſmall tract to an unuſual length, but the importance of the ſubject will plead our excuſe.

Art. 22. *Thoughts on the Engliſh Government*. Addreſſed to the quiet Good Senſe of the People of England. In a Series of Letters. Letter I. 8vo. 2s. Owen. 1795.

The proceedings of the Houſe of Commons relative to this pamphlet, of which the well-known Mr. Reeves is the reputed author, and which they have pronounced to be a libel on our conſtitution, have ſufficiently acquainted the public with its nature and tendency. While, however, we record this deciſion of parliament, we think it proper to lay before our readers thoſe paſſages which were particularized in the Houſe, with ſome others that ſtrongly mark the principles which the author wiſhes to inculcate.

The following extract includes the ſentences quoted by Mr. Sturt in the Houſe, when he made the firſt motion on the ſubject:

'With the exception of the advice and conſent of the two Houſes of Parliament, and the interpoſition of Juries; the Government, and

the administration of it in all its parts, may be said to rest wholly and solely on the King, and those appointed by him. Those two adjuncts of *Parliament* and *Juries* are subsidiary *and* OCCASIONAL; but the King's Power is a substantive one, always visible and active. By his Officers, and in his name, every thing is transacted that relates to the peace of the Realm and the protection of the Subject. The Subject feels this, and acknowledges with thankfulness a superintending sovereignty, which alone is congenial with the sentiments and temper of Englishmen. In fine the Government of England is a *Monarchy*; the Monarch is the antient stock from which have sprung those goodly branches of the Legislature, the Lords and Commons, that at the same time give ornament to the Tree, and afford shelter to those who seek protection under it. But these are still only branches, and derive their origin and their nutriment from their common parent; they may be lopped off, and the Tree is a Tree still; shorn indeed of its honours, but not, like them, cast into the fire. The Kingly Government may go on, in all its functions, without Lords or Commons: it has heretofore done so for years together, and in our times it does so during every recess of Parliament; but without the King *his* Parliament is no more. The King, therefore, alone it is who necessarily subsists without change or diminution; and from *him* alone we unceasingly derive the protection of Law and Government.'

Having characterized, or *caricaturized*, those who raise questions on the merits of our government, the author adds, 'Such are those men, who, contrary to the genius of Englishmen, hate *peace* and *quiet*, and instead of reposing themselves confidently on the GOVERNMENT OF THE KING, earnestly seek to have a share in it themselves.'

Adverting to the affairs of France, the writer makes the following unqualified assertion:

'What a counterfeit of Liberty has been played off upon the poor people of that country! and what a degenerate down-trodden race must they be, who have not discovered the imposition: or, discovering it, have not resisted it, and done themselves justice! This could not be, *if there was any honesty, any fortitude, or any manly sentiment in the country; but these are not qualities to be found in France*, and Liberty seems destined never to make her abode there.'

Speaking of those great events in our annals, known by the names of *the Reformation* and *the Revolution*, the author thus strangely asserts that *no alteration* of the antient government took place at those periods:

'Those memorable transactions were conducted in a way that was truly English; the actors in them proceeded with their remedy as far as the disease reached, and no further; and they never suffered themselves to lose sight of this main rule, that what they did was to preserve the antient government, and not to destroy OR ALTER it.'

Every man who truly deserves the noble appellation of a PATRIOT, a word so sacred in its meaning, though now generally scoffed at by unprincipled witlings, is thus included in a general sneer:

'Suppose, for a moment, that some Patriot should, *among the estates that he has not yet been obliged to sell*, possess one that came to his ancestor from the favour of the Crown (which is no obstacle to the descendants

deſcendants being Patriots,) and that this eſtate had come to the Crown, *as perhaps it may again, by forfeiture for high treaſon*,'—&c.

Having, at the onſet, aſſerted that the *government* of this country reſides in the *King*, and that *the laws* are *made* and *executed* by him, the author afterwards ſays:

'In ſhort—the *Government* we know—and the *Laws* we know—but the *Conſtitution* we know not.—It is an unknown region, that has never been viſited but by dreamers, and men who ſee viſions; and the reports they make are ſo contradictory, that no one relies upon them. Yet we can manage to ſpell out of them, that there is reſident there a great deal of faction and ſedition; envy and ambition; and ſomething that looks like eternal warfare of party. But the Engliſh Government is real and ſubſtantial; we ſee and feel it; we can take its height and its depth; and we know its movements, becauſe they are regulated by eſtabliſhed and known laws. This is the only Conſtitution ever ſuppoſed or named by men of ſober minds and ſound underſtanding; that is, *the Conſtitution of our Government, or the Conſtitution eſtabliſhed by Law*.'

How are we to underſtand this paſſage? The writer firſt ſays, that 'we know not *the Conſtitution*,' and then proceeds to tell us what the Conſtitution is. What difference are we to ſuppoſe he ſees between *the Conſtitution*, as mentioned in the abſtract by the generality of perſons, and *his* '*Conſtitution of our Government*, or *the Conſtitution eſtabliſhed by Law?*' What, but that the Conſtitution conſiſts in the government and the laws, and that theſe reſide wholly in the King? According to this reaſoning, our government is—and the writer no doubt wiſhes it to be—*an abſolute monarchy*.

It was truly obſerved, however, in the Houſe of Commons, by Mr. Pitt, that there were inconſiſtencies in this pamphlet. Thus, as we have already ſtated, the author aſſerts that the King is our ſole governor, the ſole maker and executor of our laws, and yet he acknowleges that his Majeſty can *enact* no law without the advice and conſent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and of the Commons in Parliament aſſembled; and that he can *execute* no law without the intervention of the judges, and of grand or petty juries. All theſe adjuncts, however, be it obſerved, are ſaid to be '*ſubſidiary and occaſional*,' and may be '*lopped off*' without detriment to the ſtate.

After having made ſome juſt obſervations on the degree of credit to be given to any party in a nation, in general, merely as *a party*, the writer ſpeaks of the preſent ſtate of parties in this country with a judgment which will not, we think, be deemed equally well-founded:

'There are now no diviſions in the nation, but that of the Friends to the Conſtitution as eſtabliſhed by Law, and that of the Republicans, who are laying [lying] by for an opportunity to level every thing to the equality of a French Democracy; and there are no political opinions by which men are diſtinguiſhed, but thoſe that are in favour of the Conſtitution as eſtabliſhed by Law, and thoſe who are againſt it.'

The author's reverence for one of his 'occaſional and ſubſidiary' parts of the *Government*, as he chuſes to ſtyle the *Conſtitution*, will be ſeen from the following paragraph; in which he preſumes to reverſe,

on his bare assertion, the judgments of juries which were complimented by the presiding judge as having displayed the most unwearied attention, and the most diligent investigation, and who delivered their verdict after much private deliberation.

'The designs of the Democrats have been fully exposed to the public view on the trials of some of them last year for High Treason; they were then indeed acquitted by a Jury, but they have since been *found guilty by their Country*, on the evidence of the proceedings at the trial, which are in the hands of every body.'

We must, however, restrain our pen. It would be a task of too much length, were we to select every position in this pamphlet which challenges the most complete refutation, and which is obnoxious to the most decided censure; and indeed, as we have before observed, Parliament has rendered this duty the less necessary, by having itself amply reviewed, and thoroughly condemned, the doctrines thus presumptuously broached, and thus dangerously disseminated.

Shall we see the intimated *continuation* of these Letters?

Art. 23. *Sketch of the Causes of the Advance and Decline of Nations*; with Strictures on Systems of Finance, particularly applied to those of France and Great Britain. 8vo. pp. 209. 3s. 6d. Johnson. 1795.

The subjects treated by this writer are among the most important belonging to the science of political economics; being, indeed, most of those which were so ably discussed by the celebrated Dr. Adam Smith in his Wealth of Nations. The present writer commences with "Stock," which he divides into three portions, the manufacturing, farming, and mercantile: He next considers the extent of market, and its effects on the employment of stock: then, the division of stock, the nominal value of commodities, the accumulation of stock, and the nature of production. Demand, money, circulation, and credit are the succeeding topics; followed by revenue, and its various branches, taxes, national expences, and national wealth. On these subjects,—several of which, singly, would afford matter for a volume,—it cannot be supposed that a *sketch* comprized in a pamphlet, though a large one, can give a satisfactory elucidation. Indeed, it is the author's intention only to lay down *principles*: but even to do *that* requires a clearness of method, and a comprehensive accuracy of thought and expression, which we confess we have not been able to discover in our perusal of his work. Nevertheless, many of the ideas are just, and the tendency of the whole is liberal; and when the writer chuses farther to open his system, and to give to his notions all the advantage of correct language and perspicuous arrangement, he may very usefully instruct the public.

Art. 24. *A Letter addressed to the People of Piedmont*, on the Advantages of the French Revolution, and the Necessity of adopting its Principles in Italy. By Joel Barlow. Translated from the French by the Author. 8vo. pp. 48. 1s. 6d. Eaton. 1795.

The advertisement, prefixed to this work, gives a kind of historical account of the Letter, and states the purposes for which it was sent into the world:

'This

'This Letter was written at Chambery in Savoy, in December 1792, at the requeſt of thoſe members of the National Convention who were then in that country, for the purpoſe of organiſing the department of Mont Blanc. It was printed in French at Grenoble, and in Italian at Nice, and ſent from thoſe places into Piedmont, and other parts of Italy, during that winter.

'It will occur to the reader of the Engliſh copy, which now appears for the firſt time in print, that the defection of Dumourier, in April 1793, the violent factions which diſtracted the Convention, and the ſubſequent civil commotions in many parts of France, occupied the attention of the Republicans the remainder of that year. Their operations againſt the league of foreign enemies (which was now augmented by the addition of England, Holland, Spain and Naples) were confined for that campaign to the defence of the frontiers; and they were thus prevented from puſhing the extenſive advantages which they had gained the year before.

'This circumſtance relieved the King of Sardinia from the deſpair in which he had been plunged. It gave him time to augment his forces and repair his fortifications. It gave him arguments againſt the French and the principles of the revolution, and thus enabled him in ſome degree to unite his people in favour of the ſyſtem of deſpotiſm to which they had been accuſtomed; for it muſt be confeſſed, that the manner in which the French affairs were conducted that year, had a ſtrong tendency to excite a diſreliſh to their cauſe in the minds of diſtant or ignorant obſervers. In addition to all theſe advantages, he received a ſubſidy from England, to enable him to defend his own dominions; by the aid of which he has ſince obtained a large body of auxiliary troops from Tirol, Milan, and Tuſcany.

'Theſe unexpected events produced a remarkable change in the relative ſituation of the French and Piedmonteſe, from the cloſe of the firſt campaign to the cloſe of the ſecond. But the third is now opened with as much advantage to the French as the moſt ardent republican could expect. July 15, 1794.'

The admirers of Joel Barlow ſee in him the champion of liberty; while many will view him in no other light than that of the friend of France. He may appear to ſome to be animated by a deſire to impart to the ſurrounding nations the bleſſings of a free government: but to others it will ſeem as if his real object were to facilitate the progreſs of the French arms, and to extend the empire not of liberty but of France. If what he really deſigned were to rouſe men to ſhake off the galling yoke of ſervitude, why did he ſingle out the Piedmonteſe? Could he in truth ſay that the government under which they live is the moſt deſpotic, the moſt tyrannical in Europe? Moſt certainly he could not. The kings of Sardinia, though veſted with a degree of power too great to be truſted to one man, have generally ſo tempered it, that, comparatively ſpeaking, their yoke was light; and never was a race of princes more beloved by the people, than the ſovereigns of Savoy and Piedmont. This fact muſt be admitted by any one who has ever travelled through thoſe countries. Why then did Mr. Barlow paſs by thoſe regions in which men groan under the moſt abject ſlavery? Why did he overlook the Turkiſh dominions?

Why the wide domains of Ruſſia? The reaſon appears indeed to be very obvious. The principality of Piedmont, from its natural ſtrength of ſituation, preſented the greateſt obſtacles to the progreſs of the French armies into Italy, the country of all Europe at preſent the leaſt capable of reſiſtance, when once an invader has deſcended from the mountains into its plains, and at the ſame time the beſt able to furniſh an immediate and immenſe ſupply of wealth from the ſpoils of the church. The plunder of Italy would give France the means of continuing the war againſt the reſt of the world, and of keeping up the value of her aſſignats; while the poſſeſſion of the ſea-ports of that vaſt and valuable peninſula would ſecure to the French the dominion of the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, and give them the complete monopoly of the Turkey or Levant trade. If he could have had any excuſe for not addreſſing the Turks, and exciting them to aſſert the rights of men, why did not the author addreſs his letter to the Venetians, in compariſon with whom the Piedmonteſe are the freeſt people on earth? The reaſon is obvious; Venice and France were on a footing of friendſhip; and that friendſhip, ſo uſeful to the latter, was not to be hazarded.

So much for the principle of this Letter: we will now ſay ſomething of its expediency.

The phyſician who hears a patient's complaints, and removes them, is an uſeful and valuable member of ſociety: but that phyſician ought to be conſidered as a nuiſance, who ſhould endeavour to perſuade people that they were ill, though they had not conſulted him, nor told him that they felt any pain. Such is preciſely the caſe of Joel Barlow and the Piedmonteſe. They have not, we believe, complained to him, nor aſked his advice: but he goes to them unaſked, and tells them that they are very ill indeed! that their ſituation is truly deplorable! and that, if they do not follow his preſcription, they are loſt for ever! Is this, however, the conduct of a regular practitioner, or is it that of a mere empiric? Our readers may think that this author had more than ordinary grounds for his proceeding, and that proofs had been communicated to him of the wretched condition of this people:—but the truth is that he knew nothing of the matter, and that he aſſumes the whole caſe. His words are—'I preſume in the firſt place, and I think I am not deceived, that you are diſcontented with your preſent ſituation. I believe you are convinced that you cannot be happy, as a people, while the powers of your government remain as they now are, as relative to the church, the ſtate, and the army. If this be true, you muſt wiſh for a change.—' Suppoſe it ſhould not be true, then it does not follow that they muſt wiſh for a change. How does Mr. B. *know* that they are not happy? but he finds it convenient to *ſuppoſe* that they are not; for it is only on that ſuppoſition that he could pretend to ſpeak to them in the ſtyle of his preſent letter. He ſtates no remonſtrance from magiſtrates, judges, or corporations, enumerating public grievances, and calling for redreſs; he preſumes, however, that thoſe grievances exiſt: why? Is it becauſe they profeſs a religion which he thinks erroneous, and they deem orthodox? Is it becauſe they have a king, when he thinks monarchy a nuiſance? Is it becauſe they have a claſs of men diſtinguiſhed

guiſhed by hereditary titles, which they reſpect, and which he thinks they ought to aboliſh? If in all theſe points it ſhould happen that they follow their own inclination, that very circumſtance conſtitutes their happineſs; and to attempt to force them to be happy, in a way not ſuited to their inclination, would be to render them completely miſerable. *Invitum qui ſervat idem facit occidenti.* Happineſs exiſts in the imagination, which will not bear to be forced: like confidence, it muſt ſpring up ſpontaneouſly. We could not be happy under the government of a prince whoſe power was bounded only by his will; and yet we find vaſt nations ſubmitting without reluctance to ſuch a ſovereign; nay, we ſee the moſt powerful of his ſubjects kiſs the bow-ſtring with which they are about to be ſtrangled. We could not find happineſs in the roving life of thoſe hordes of uncultivated men, who are uſually called ſavages, and who acknowlege no reſtraint on their natural liberty: we are for civil and ſocial life: but there are whole nations which would conſider it as ſupreme miſery to be obliged to partake of what we call the enjoyments of ſociety, the felicity of domeſtic intercourſe, and the comforts of a fixed habitation and a regular courſe of life. In our opinion, therefore, Mr. B. proceeds on weak grounds, when he preſumes that the Piedmonteſe muſt wiſh for a change, merely becauſe they live, however quietly, under a form of government which never could be *his* choice. Having, however, laid it down as a certainty that they do wiſh for a change, he diſcuſſes two important queſtions—1ſt, Whether they are able to effect a revolution in their government; 2d, Whether ſuch a meaſure would benefit them. It is needleſs to add here the reſult of *his* diſcuſſion.

Even Joel Barlow, who affects to write with preciſion, can make uſe of ambiguous terms, and can build on them arguments which, according to the different meanings of theſe terms, may be ſaid to be both true and falſe. An inſtance of this occurs in what he ſays about *ſovereigns*:

'France has taught you a great practical truth, which is too conſoling to be rejected, and too clear to be called in queſtion, *that you are the ſovereigns in your own country*; that you have not, that you cannot have a maſter, unleſs you chooſe to give up your reaſon, and renounce the character of men; that for any man to call himſelf your ſovereign is a blaſphemy againſt God the ſovereign of nature, and againſt men the proprietors of the earth.'

The king of England is ſtyled ſovereign; nay the two houſes of parliament call him *their* ſovereign; yet it is certain that in acts of legiſlation they are co eſtates with him, and perfectly equal in authority; and that legiſlatively he can do nothing without them: but, as the ſupreme head of the executive power through all its departments, and as the hereditary repreſentative of the nation, he is the ſuperior of every man *individually* who ſits in parliament, and can by law lay claim to allegiance from all, and to the obedience of every individual to all lawful command. The abſolute ſovereignty, however, is not in him; for there the ſovereign power reſides where the power of making laws is acknowleged and exerciſed.

Our

Our author finds it so easy a task on the part of the Piedmontese to effect a revolution in their government, and perceives so many calls and incentives to it, that he changes his first question, and says that the more natural question is, 'are they able to resist it?' This latter question certainly has so much more the advantage of the former, that it speaks out; and the clear meaning of it evidently is, 'can they resist the change which France wants to *impose* on them?' To *impose* on a *free* people, a *sovereign* people, who have an undoubted right to *choose* for *themselves?*

Considering the question whether a change of government would be a benefit to them, he tells them that their condition is so bad, that it can scarcely be rendered worse. Now, should this happen to be news to them; should they compare their situation with that of France, and deem their own truly enviable on a comparison; what would they say of his opinion and his advice? Lest they should think too unfavourably of the French revolution, he says that they have been misinformed with respect to its nature and the events that have attended it; and that their religious teachers and political masters have an interest in deceiving them. This presumes that the French newspapers have never reached Turin; and that the people of that city could procure no other than garbled accounts of the transactions in France.

We may be thought by some to have treated Mr. Barlow with severity: but we appeal to the good sense of mankind, whether we should not have run the risk of being thought insincere in our declarations of inviolable attachment to the British constitution, nay downright prevaricators, were we to countenance the author of such a doctrine as the following, relative to one of the integral parts of the constitution of our country. Mr. B. thus dogmatically decides on the nature of kingly government:

'This is the true state of the case. The whole of this war on the part of your monarch is maintained by deceiving you. Indeed the whole business of monarchy is deception; kings must govern by deception, as long as they govern at all; for it is impossible for one man to tyrannise over a whole people, but by deceiving them. I have no particular dislike to your king, any more than to all others; he is probably no worse than kings in general. They hold an office that is perfectly useless in society, and exceedingly destructive to the peace and happiness of mankind. In this view they ought to be detested by every man, and rejected by every nation.'

Such is his opinion of kings and of their office! This was certainly taking a bold flight: but he soon after soars still higher, and, opposing his own wisdom to that of all the people of Europe, of every religion and of every government, he most authoritatively condemns the *law of nations*; which, without mincing matters, he styles 'a system of robbery and murder.' After this, who will venture to say that our author has not raised himself *à la hauteur de la revolution?* It would seem, however, that he is but ill qualified to write on this subject; for it does not appear that he knows any thing more of the *Jus Publicum*, than merely what relates to some positive compacts made for securing and guaranteeing conquests.

The

The ſtyle of this pamphlet is not inferior to that of the author's other works: but moſt unqueſtionably his arguments are weaker, and his ſuppoſitions ſtill more groundleſs than thoſe which we condemned in the ſecond part of his *Advice to the privileged orders*. See Rev. Nov.

CONVENTION *and* SEDITION BILLS.

Art. 25. *A Dialogue upon the two Bills now depending in Parliament*, relative to the Rights of the People, tranſcribed by William Wilſon, Jaſper's Brother. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Owen. 1795.

Theſe bills having, after uncommon oppoſition, gone through the ordeal of parliamentary diſcuſſion, and received the conſtitutional *fiat*, all debate on the ſubject ſeems to have died a natural death.—We ſhall, however, for the ſatisfaction of ſuch of our readers as may incline to take the principles and probable conſequences of thoſe extraordinary meaſures into farther conſideration, ſlightly record the appearance of thoſe publications on the ſubject which have been laid before us, either prior to, or after the paſſing of the bills in queſtion.

The firſt production of this kind is the *Dialogue* above mentioned. Its general deſign is to explode the bills, as being of a deſpotic unconſtitutional nature, inconſiſtent with the rights of free-born Britons, and of evil tendency even towards the very government which they profeſs to ſupport; and which they will, in the opinion of Jaſper Wilſon's pretended brother, conſiderably weaken, by increaſing the number of its *diſcontented* ſubjects. What reaſon there may be for this apprehenſion, we cannot determine, till we have ſeen more of their operation on the public mind.

We ſay *pretended* brother of Jaſper Wilſon, for we doubt the affinity here claimed with a writer of the firſt reputation. We always underſtood that Jaſper is an Engliſhman: but this gentleman (the 'tranſcriber' of a coffee-houſe converſation,) is evidently a North Briton, as appears from the Scotticiſms in his language,—as 'will' for *ſhall*, and 'ſhall' for *will*; with a frequent recurrence of '*hatred* AT' one thing, and '*hatred* AT' another, till the ear of the Engliſh reader is quite diſguſted. Yet, whatever defects of this kind are found in his performance, he appears to be a man of obſervation and good ſenſe, and a zealous well-wiſher to the conſtitutional liberties of his country. He has ſhewn, however, a want of judgment in one inſtance, which we cannot avoid pointing out: p. 25, he remarks that 'the age of belief in divine inſpiration is paſt among all men of common ſenſe.'—However reſtricted, or applied, may be his meaning in this remark, ſome readers will perhaps miſunderſtand or miſapply it; and not a few may be greatly offended on a religious account, who might not have had any great objection to his politics.

Art. 26. *Conſiderations on Lord Grenville's and Mr. Pitt's Bills*, concerning treaſonable and ſeditious Practices, &c. By a Lover of Order. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnſon.

This animated writer ſets out with ſeveral preliminary remarks, which are moderate, candid, and judicious; he then diſcuſſes the irregularities profeſſedly intended to be corrected by the bills, and expatiates on the importance and formidable appearance of the London Correſponding Society: comparing its principles and conduct with

thoſe of the Jacobins in France. He paſſes a degree of cenſure on the political Lectures lately given in Beaufort Buildings; makes warm encomiums on the genuine principles of parliamentary reform; juſtly explodes all intemperate endeavours to carry thoſe principles into practice; and concludes theſe copious introductory obſervations with denouncing the *Correſponding Society* as a formidable machine, and the ſyſtem of political lecturing as a hot-bed perhaps too well adapted to purpoſes more or leſs ſimilar to thoſe of the Jacobin Society of Paris. He admits that the proceedings of ſuch a ſociety, and of ſuch lecturers, deſerve the attention of government; and he then proceeds to conſider *the ſort of attention* which wiſe ſtateſmen in ſuch caſes ought to employ.

Thus far all ſeems to promiſe much in *favour* of the bills; which, however, are here, after a ſtrict and ample ſcrutiny, totally condemned, as in the higheſt degree unjuſt, arbitrary, and dangerous.—Farther than this concluſion we need not proceed in opening the deſign * and tendency of theſe 'Conſiderations.' We therefore only add that the pamphlet is written with uncommon energy and animation;—and that, *en paſſant*, Biſhop Horſley comes in, (as a favourer of deſpotiſm) for ſome ſmart and cutting ſtrokes of this writer's keen, acute, and formidable pen.

We underſtand that this production is attributed to Mr. Godwin, author of the well-known work on political juſtice.

Art. 27. *The Proceedings* at the Meeting, 17th Nov. 1795, at St. Andrew's Hall, Norwich, to petition Parliament againſt Lord Grenville's and Mr. Pitt's Treaſon and Sedition Bills. 8vo. pp. 24. Norwich.

This pamphlet contains the account of a provincial meeting, called to oppoſe the new meaſures, as above mentioned, and has no doubt great local circulation. It is admitted by the different ſpeakers, that *ſedition* is a proper object of prohibitory regulation. The word (derived *à ſeorſum eundo*) properly means a ſeparation of the people into two parts, for the purpoſe of reckoning their relative numbers. The ſeditious, the ſeparaters of the people, may be troubleſome, particularly if the motive be ſlight: but, abſtractedly ſpeaking, can they be criminal, if ſedition, as has been aſſerted, bears to politics the preciſe relation of *hereſy* to *religion*?

Art. 28. *A Remonſtrance in Favour of Britiſh Liberty*, addreſſed to the Right Hon. W. Pitt, Firſt Lord of the Treaſury, &c. By a Country Gentleman. 8vo. 1s. Symonds.

This 'country gentleman' employs warm declamation and ſerious argument in ſupport of the people's right of *petitioning* government for the redreſs of grievances, and of *aſſembling* for that purpoſe; to which right, he apprehends, the miniſter whom he here addreſſes is decidedly hoſtile. He ſeems perſuaded that what he deems the late infringement of theſe ſacred rights is but the firſt link of a chain, now actually forging, if not already forged, for the ſhackling of Britiſh liberty; and he fears that the trial by jury, and the freedom of parliamentary

* In cenſuring both the bills, Lord Grenville's is ſtigmatized as the worſt of the two.

debate,

debate, are deſtined to be the next victims. He enumerates the fatal effects that, in his opinion, will naturally follow the enthralment of our national palladium; and he examines 'the pretext for theſe extraordinary meaſures,'—which he thinks inadequate and fallacious. He concludes his letter to the premier with an expoſtulation on the (alledged) evil tendency of thoſe meaſures which have given riſe to this Remonſtrance.

In the courſe of his addreſs to Mr. Pitt, the author ſteps a little out of his way to charge Mr. Wilberforce with inconſiſtency, in endeavouring to make the Africans *free*, while his parl———ry conduct is ſaid to tend to make his countrymen *ſlaves*.

The pamphlet concludes with a pathetic addreſs *to the people*, conjuring them to be above all things careful to tranſmit to their poſterity 'the ineſtimable jewel they inherit from the virtue and heroiſm of their anceſtors.'

In a poſtſcript, the author takes particular notice of Lord Grenville's expreſſion in the Houſe of Lords "GOOD TIMES," the reigns of Elizabeth and Charles II. and diſplays the political character of thoſe *good* times; which, he inſiſts, were remarkably unfavourable to the cauſe of liberty, and conſequently of truth and juſtice.

Art. 29. *A Letter to the High Sheriff of the County of Lincoln*, reſpecting the Bills of Lord Grenville and Mr. Pitt, for *altering* the Criminal Law of England, reſpecting Treaſon and Sedition. By John Cartwright, Eſq. 8vo. 1s. Johnſon.

As a politician, Mr. Cartwright is ſo well known to our readers in general, that to employ a moment of time, or a line of writing, in enlarging on his zeal for the Britiſh conſtitution, would merely be a work of ſupererogation.

This worthy watchman of the ſtate has been exceedingly alarmed, in common with, we believe, at leaſt one half of the nation, on account of the bills mentioned in the title; and he has taken the occaſion afforded by a ſummons to attend a county meeting *, which an indiſpoſition prevented him from obeying, to offer his ſentiments, in writing, to the gentlemen who ſhould be preſent at that aſſembly, on ſome of the intereſting ſubjects which might then naturally come under diſcuſſion.

This publication contains a variety of political matter, more or leſs connected with the immediate and profeſſed object of the meeting: but the principal topics are, the great buſineſs of parliamentary repreſentation, (an object, of which this unchanged, and we believe unchangeable, patriotic writer never loſes ſight,) and the dreadful tendency of the two 'horrible' bills depending in parliament; the ſpirit and natural operation of which he execrates in the ſtrongeſt terms that the Engliſh language, noble and nervous as it is, can *decently* afford.—In the petition from *himſelf*, individually, which he had the *ſingular* manlineſs to preſent, by the hand of Mr. Fox, to the Houſe of Commons, he is perfectly cool and collected, but firm and energetic.

* "To conſider of an addreſs to our moſt gracious Sovereign, relative to the late atrocious attack on his royal and ſacred perſon."

Left

Left it ſhould be imagined, by any reader, that Major Cartwright is to be numbered among thoſe who may have contracted a *perſonal* prejudice againſt the miniſter, he takes occaſion to make, in its proper place, the following declaration: 'To the friends of the miniſter I can ſay that I was once his friend; and that he then was the object of my greateſt reverence, of my higheſt hope. Nor did he ever give me the ſmalleſt cauſe of perſonal offence. I am now his enemy; for he is become, in my eſtimation, the enemy of his country, and of human kind!'

With reſpect to the ſubject of parliamentary reformation, and the uniform tenor and conduct of its advocates, we muſt acknowlege that we have no where ſeen the queſtion placed in a more comprehenſive or more ſtriking light, conſidering the narrowneſs of the limits to which it is confined, than in this ſmall but highly intereſting publication.

Art. 30. *Where would be the Harm of a ſpeedy Peace?* 8vo. 3d. Briſtol printed by Biggs, and ſold alſo by other Bookſellers.

We here meet with ſome good and not common-place arguments in favour of a ſpeedy peace. The writer is by no means a ſhallow thinker on political ſubjects; and it is a credit to him that his general ſentiments ſo nearly agree with thoſe of the venerable and ſagacious Dean Tucker. He is in no reſpect partial to the preſent miniſterial meaſures; and he particularly cenſures the impoſt on farmers' horſes, which he ſtyles an 'odious tax on the produce of the plough, and on all who conſume that produce.' This tract is ſigned with the initials T. B. by which we underſtand the author of the next article.

Art. 31. *A Word in Defence of the Bill of Rights*, againſt the **Gagging Bills**. By Thomas Beddoes, M. D. 8vo. 3d. *with the Poſtſcript*. Briſtol printed by Biggs, &c. London, Johnſon.

An animated and well-written comment on two lines here extracted from the Bill of Rights, viz. "It is the right of the ſubject to petition the King, and all commitments and proſecutions for ſuch petitioning are illegal."

The patriotic writer endeavours, with zeal and ability, to defend and guard the Bill of Rights from the attack which he conceives to have been made on it by what he ſarcaſtically terms the **Gagging Bills**; and he adviſes the good people of Briſtol to aſſemble, in order to exerciſe and aſſert their rights; not by riotous behaviour, or intemperate language, but, *peaceably*, to pronounce their ſentiments 'with calm and dignified firmneſs.' 'Mr. Dundas,' he adds, 'himſelf almoſt called upon you for your ſentiments, when he ſaid that the impending bills ought not to paſs, if the people expreſſed diſapprobation. By your peaceable demeanour you will convict of calumny thoſe who aſſert, you are not to be truſted to aſſemble. Let not even an indiſcretion eſcape you, which can lend a plauſible argument to tyranny.'

With reſpect to the late conduct of adminiſtration, however, our author does not, himſelf, (in every part of his popular addreſs,) ſet an example of the moſt moderate and guarded language. The premier is often and pointedly attacked. 'Citizens,' ſays the addreſſer, 'if an examination of the miniſter's conduct be permitted, I engage

to

to demonſtrate that this man's whole public life has been employed in winding and doubling along the maze of intrigue, under the guidance of ſelfiſh craft; and that the bittereſt charges in his harangues againſt Lord North are applicable with more force to himſelf.'

Yet it does not appear that this warm addreſſer of the people has an idea of inflaming them, in order to irritate them againſt government. 'For myſelf,' ſays he, 'I deprecate all violence. I ſhudder at the idea of confuſion. In this ſpirit, deſcrying anarchy at the end of an avenue of oppreſſion, I proteſt againſt that revolution of law which threatens our liberty. A man accuſtomed, all his ſecluded life, to ſeek truth by the inſtrumentality of reaſon, cannot well fail to abhor the diſorders committed by mobs.'—

Agreeably to this ſalutary caution, it appears, from the *poſtſcript*, that the Briſtol meeting was conducted with the utmoſt regard to peace and good order; on which occaſion, Dr. B. thus concludes his *poſtſcript*: 'Citizens of Briſtol! Your cauſe has greatly gained by your excellent demeanour in ſupporting it. Patriotic zeal, I am told, never collected ſo many ſignatures * in ſo ſhort a time. And not only were no arts uſed to enliſt petitioners, but precautions were taken to prevent improper perſons from ſigning.

Nov. 21, *eleven o'clock at night.*'

SCHOOL BOOKS.

Art. 32. *An eaſy Guide, or an Introduction to the Hebrew Language*, adapted for the Uſe of Schools, and to render Perſons capable of teaching themſelves in an expeditious Manner. By Mrs. E. Bullman. 8vo. 1s. No Bookſeller's name.

This lady appears enamoured of the *conciſeneſs*, *elegance*, and *grandeur* of the Hebrew language. She wiſhes to recommend it to general attention; and, ſince books of inſtruction for this purpoſe bear, ſhe ſays, a price too high for the lower orders of the people, ſhe offers this introduction, which ſhe deems ſufficient for attaining the firſt rudiments of the language. The letters, the points or vowels, and the dageſh, alone are here conſidered. Plates are given of the Hebrew letters united with the different vowels or points, and their *ſuppoſed* pronunciation. A few other plates are added of paſſages of ſcripture in the original, with an Engliſh tranſlation underneath. Reading and pronunciation (which are indeed various and uncertain) are alone regarded in this little treatiſe, which may poſſibly prove beneficial for the purpoſe to thoſe who will peruſe it with care. A future work, viz. a ſhort and explicit grammar, we are told, may be expected —The Engliſh, in the *preſent*, is rather imperfect and incorrect: but the lady is probably a foreigner. Her portrait is prefixed to the pamphlet.

Art. 33. *The firſt Principles of Arithmetic, Vulgar and Decimal*; with the Extraction of Roots of different Powers. By John George Engliſh, late Teacher of the Mathematics in the Royal Navy. To which is added a conciſe Compendium of Book-keeping by ſingle Entry. 12mo. pp. 190. 2s. bound. Vernor and Hood. 1795. This ſchool-book may, *perhaps*—for it is impoſſible that we ſhould

* To the petition for peace.

find

find time to examine it throughout—be (as it professes,) free from those errors which are too common in books of arithmetic: but there is one material point in which it will, we suppose, be commonly thought inferior in utility to many others; namely, that it does not illustrate each rule by an example, performed at length according to the rule. The unwrought examples are very numerous; and to many of the rules are annexed, in the notes, mathematical demonstrations. We find nothing on the subjects of permutations and combinations.

PHILOSOPHY, &c.

Art. 34. *The Key of Natural Philosophy:* or an Introduction into the Knowledge of Nature. A plain Philosophical Treatise: wherein a concise and clear Account is given, in the most simple and natural Manner, hitherto unknown to the World, of the following among other Operations of Nature, viz. of the Flux and Reflux of the Sea; of the Deluge; of Earthquakes, and Volcanos; of Vegetation, and the Transformation of Matter; of the Cause of Gravity, which Sir Isaac Newton hath not discovered. Concluding which brief Observations on the Being of God, the Works of Creation, and the Hebrew Words Jehovah Elohim. Third Edition, improved. By the Rev. Thomas Clement, Curate of Brendon, in the County of Devon 8vo. pp. 108. 2s. 6d. Exeter, Trewman.

For our idea of this work, in its original state, we refer our readers to Rev. N. S. vol. v. p. 102. Though the present republication is given as an improved edition of the work, its essential characters still continue so perfectly the same, that we have nothing to add to our former account. If, in this age of observation and experiment, the author should not be able to obtain credit for his system, we know of no consolation which remains for him, but to make his appeal to some future age; in which, perchance, the world, in its unaccountable vagaries, may return to its antient love of hypothesis and conjecture.

POETRY, &c.

Art. 35. *The Lousiad.* Canto V. and last. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. Walker. 1795.

At length this whimsical structure of the brain—this comical something, built upon nothing,—which has been so long unfinished, seems to be completed. Whether the little animal, whose reported appearance at court served for the foundation of the work, ever made his unceremonious *entrée*, is, with many persons, a matter of more doubt than importance. If we are to consider him as only the imaginary hero of a well-fancied tale, the greater must be the merit of the inventor. The poet, however, abides by the fact, and still prosecutes his droll detail and conclusion of the incidents by which it has been embellished in the several cantos of this most *delectable* EPIC. In his 'unravelment of the plot,' if we may be allowed to talk of the *plot* of an *Epic poem*, we were unexpectedly diverted on finding that, after all the stir that had been about the royal mandate for shaving the cooks and scullions of the palace, in consequence of the suspicion that the creeping intruder had his origin in the locks of some one of them, it

is at last discovered that the tiny adventurer was, in reality, of MUCH HIGHER extraction than had been suspected; consequently, that the principal characters in the *Dramatis Personæ* were "all in the wrong;"—and thus the mystery is developed:

First, in the argument to the poem.—A great personage exulteth in his victory * over the cooks,—endeavoureth to prove the *property* of the *louse*,—also the certainty of its being a *real louse*; and *sheweth* the little animal by way of conviction. The poet exhibiteth *biblical* and *classical* knowlege in an account of animals that have *spoken*, in order to reconcile the reader's revolting mind to the SPEECH of the LOUSE. The louse giveth a wonderful history of himself, his family, &c. and proveth the superior antiquity of his race to that of kings—the Great Personage, in wrath, giveth louse the *lie*, and endeavoureth his destruction;—but ZEPHYR suddenly beareth him off to the celestial region, and converteth him into a star; which was discovered soon after by DOCTOR HERSCHELL.—Name of the star,—&c. *Secondly*, in the conclusion of the poem itself:

'A pill-box then he ope'd with eager look,
And shew'd the Crawler, to convince each cook.
The long-ear'd beast of BALAAM, lo, we find,
Sharp to the beast that rode him spoke his mind;
The mournful Xanthus † (says the Bard of old)
Of Peleus' warlike son the fortune told:
Thus to the captive louse was language giv'n,
Which proves what interest JUSTICE holds in heav'n.
The vermin, rising on his little rump,
Like ladies' lap-dogs, that for muffin mump,
Thus, solemn as our bishops, when they preach,
Made to the best of —— his maiden speech:
" Know, mighty ———, I was born and bred
" Deep in the burrows of a Page's head;
" There took I sweet LOUSILLA unto wife,
" My soul's delight, the comfort of my life:
" But, on a day, your Page, Sir, dar'd invade
" COWSLIP's sweet lips, your faithful dairy-maid
" Great was the struggle for the short-liv'd bliss;
" At length he won the long contested kiss!—
" When, 'mid the struggle, thus it came to pass,
" Down drop'd my wife and I upon the lass;
" From whence we crawl'd (and who's without ambition?
" Who does not wish to better his condition?)
" To *you*, dread Sir, where lo, we lov'd and fed,
" Charm'd with the fortune of a *greater* head;
" Where safe from nail and comb, and blust'ring wind,
" We nestled in your little lock behind;

* The fruitless opposition made by the gentlemen of the kitchen, to the order for despoiling them of their *capital* honours, constitutes a principal part of the incidental business of this *Pindaric Extraordinary*.

† The horse of Achilles.

" Where many a time, at Court, I've join'd your Grace,
" And with you gallop'd in the glorious chaſe;
" LOUSILLA too, my children, and my nits,
" Juſt frighten'd ſometimes out of all their wits,
" It happen'd, Sir, ah! luckleſs, luckleſs day!
" I fooliſh took it in my head to ſtray—
" How many a father, mother, daughter, ſon,
" Are oft by curioſity undone!
" Dire wiſh! for midſt my travels, urg'd by FATE,
" From you, O ——, I fell upon your plate!
" Sad was the precipice! and now I'm here,
" Far from LOUSILLA, and my children dear!
" Who now, poor ſouls! in deepeſt mourning all,
" Groan for my preſence, and lament my fall,
" NITTILLA, now, my eldeſt girl, with ſighs
" Bewails her father loſt, with ſtreaming eyes;
" And GRUBBINETTA, with the loveliеſt mien,
" In ſtate, in temper, and in form, a queen;
" And ſturdy SNAP, my ſon, a child of grace,
" His father's image both in form and face;
" And DIGGORY, poor lad, and hopeful SCRATCH,
" Boys that LOUSILLA's ſoul was proud to hatch:
" And little NIBBLE, too, my youngeſt ſon,
" Will aſk his mother where his father's gone;
" Who, (poor Louſilla!) only will reply,
" With turtle moan, and tears in either eye.

* * * * * * * * *

* * * * * * * * *

" Such is the hiſt'ry of your loyal LOUSE,
" Whoſe preſence breeds ſuch tumult in the houſe—"

The poet then notes the ill reception which this ſpeech experienced; inſomuch that the life of the little orator was endangered; when, lo!

'ZEPHYR, ſo anxious for his life, drew near,
And ſudden bore him to a diſtant ſphere,
In triumph rais'd the animal on high,
Where BERENICE's locks adorn the ſky;
But now he wiſh'd him nobler fame to ſhare,
And crawl for ever on BELINDA's hair.
Yet to the LOUSE was greater glory giv'n;
To roll a *planet* on the ſplendid heav'n,
And draw of deep aſtronomers the ken;
The GEORGIUM SIDUS of the ſons of men!!!'

Such is the concluſion of this *heroic* poem: but there is a great deal of comic matter in the preceding part of this fifth canto, which we have not room to particularize; and for which we muſt refer to the pamphlet.

Art. 36. *The Convention Bill*, an Ode. By Peter Pindar, Eſq. 4to. 1s. Walker. 1795.

It was natural for us to expect that ſuch a virago, as the Muſe of our Britiſh Pindar, would take high offence at a meaſure which ſhe might

might deem pregnant with much obstruction to her frisky motions: but we have been rather mistaken.—She, ever careless, chuses only to toss a little handful of *ridicule*, with a pugil or two of *execration*, on the obnoxious bill, and on its supposed author, Mr. Pitt.

Art. 37. *Bagatelles*; or Miscellaneous Productions; consisting of original Poetry and Translations; principally by the Editor, Weeden Butler, B. A. of Sidney Suffex College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 112. 3s. sewed. Cadell and Davies. 1795.

We may apply to this little volume of poems the humourous judgment which was pronounced on Cardinal Richelieu, viz. that he was not good enough to be *saved*, and yet was too good to be *damned*. Mediocrity constitutes the leading feature of this collection: a tameness and a want of variety in the versification, as well as a deficiency of originality of thought, are fatal bars to a poet's progress towards the temple of immortality.

Rigid observers as we profess ourselves to be of poetical justice, we shall select a specimen or two from such parts of these *Bagatelles* as have saved the volume from our critical anathema.

The address to the Genius of Academical Impudence is a lively parody: but we trust that the sentiments are not really those of the author:

'TO THE GENIUS OF ACADEMICAL IMPUDENCE.

Αναισχυντια-----
-- -- σε δε νεμω θεον.

Impudence, with brazen face,
Give me, give me all thy grace!
Never let the blush of shame
Kindle on my cheek it's flame:
But, instead, Assurance bold,
Lies, beyond whate'er were told,
Wit, that never spared a friend,
Lewdness, child of Castle-End,
Eyes, which *bore*, and looks, which speak
Insults to the virgin's cheek,
Lounge, that loves till ten to snore,
Or to *row* at Study's door,
Ease, that never came too late,
Blasphemy from Billingsgate;
These rare virtues if thou'lt give,
Impudence, with thee I'll live.'

The *Rusticated Cantab.* possesses point and animation.

'THE RUSTICATED CANTAB.

---επει φρεσιν ησιν ακοσμα τε πολλα τε ηδη,
Μαψ, αταρ ου κατα κοσμον, εριζεμεναι βασιλευσιν.

'Dread worthies, I bow at your shrine,
And, kneeling submissive, petition
You'll pardon this false step of mine,
And pity my dismal condition.

When

When ye met all together of late,
In the *room* that we term *combination*.
To fix your Petitioner's fate,
Alas! why did ye chuſe *Ruſtication*?

'That my conduct was wrong, I muſt own,
And your juſtice am forc'd to acknowledge:
But can I, in no wiſe, atone
For my fault, without leaving the college?
Conſider how ſtrange 'twill appear,
To the mind of each fine jolly fellow,
That a *Cantab* was baniſh'd a year
Juſt for *rouing* a little when mellow.

'Ye have precedents, no one denies,
To prove it but juſt that I went hence:
But, ſurely, no harm could ariſe
If ye were to relax in your ſentence.
No! truſt me, much good ſhould proceed
From granting this very great favor,
For, impreſt with a ſenſe of the deed,
I'd carefully mend my behavior.

'Ye will, then, have on me a faſt hold,
For Gratitude's ſtronger than any tie:
Then pray do not think me too bold
In thus begging hard for humanity!——
But, why ſhould I humbly implore,
Since to you all my ſorrow's a farce?
I'll ſupplicate *fellows* no more!
So, ye Reverend Dons, ——!

'The lad who good drinking enjoys,
I'll chearfully pledge in a full can;
Ruſtication's quite common, my boys,
Remember *Apollo* and *Vulcan*:
Theſe two heroes were hurl'd from the ſkies,
Neither forges nor muſic could ſave them,
For, heartily d—ning their eyes,
Jove a *travelling fellowſhip* gave them.

'Then, no longer let mortals repine
If to graſs ſent from *Oxon* or *Granta*,
But ſtick to the bleſſings divine
Which flow from a well-fill'd decanter.
When our goblets with nectar are crown'd,
And our ſpirits riſe faſter and faſter,
Whilſt good-humour ſmiles gaily around,
A fig for the *Fellows* and *Maſter*!'

As a writer's genius ſhould be eſtimated from its ſucceſsful inſtead of its *unſucceſsful* efforts, we thought it rather incumbent on our juſtice to make our extracts from the more brilliant parts of the collection. A word or two more, and we have done. When a poet takes

whole

whole lines from a brother, without acknowlegement, he ſhould proceed a little farther, and carry off his *ſpirit* too. Why "do things by halves?" The charming ſwan of Chicheſter ſeems to be *no ſtranger* to our author: *ſat verbum.*

Art. 38. *The Farmer's Son*; a moral Tale. By the Rev. *P. P.* M.A. 4to. 1s. Dilly. 1795.

The good intentions of the author, and the moral tendency of this little poem, ought to exempt it from the ſeverity of criticiſm; particularly as Mr. P. ſeems to be more deſirous of obtaining the character of a good man, than that of an excellent poet. It is profeſſedly and evidently an imitation of Mr. Anſtey's Farmer's Daughter, (ſee Review for September,) but of far inferior merit.

Art. 39. *The Summer's Day*; with Night and Death: Poems. By a Gentleman of Covent Garden Theatre. 12mo. pp. 63. The Price not mentioned. Lubbock, Rathbone Place. 1795.

To theſe poems an invocation is prefixed, the ſingularity of which may poſſibly amuſe the reader:

'Come roſy Virtue, in bright Truth's defence;
Come ſoftly ſmiling white rob'd Innocence;
Come ſweet Perſuaſion with thy ſilver Gift;
Come Genius bright my agile thoughts uplift;
Come mild Contentment, and approach me near;
Come thou Benevolence, and drop a tear!
Come powerful Muſic, aid unpoliſh'd lays;
Come ſacred Reaſon teach me every phraſe;
Come feeling Nature, to the heart impreſs;
Come ſweet Simplicity i'the ſimpleſt dreſs;
Come angel Softneſs, with the Muſe's bowl;
Come bleſt Humanity with guileleſs ſoul;
Come Charity with orphan's ſhelt'ring wing;
Come lenient Judgment, mark the notes I ſing;
Come Youth and let me pauſe thy vernal face;
Come ſilver Age, with thy well ſchooling Grace;
Come meek-eyed Patience join the rural dance;
Come Modeſty with trembling ſteps advance;
Come Gratitude, whoſe memory never lags;
Come thriftleſs Honeſty, welcome tho' in rags;
Come Piety amid a choſen band;
Come Temperance bring Religion in thy hand;
Come ſoft Expreſſion, emulate thine eye;
Come Sympathy, and heave the gen'rous ſigh;
Come Memory, and rouſe me from my dream;
Come guardian Angels waft me to my theme.'

From theſe lines we fear that no favourable opinion could be formed of the author's poetical talents; and we are ſorry to obſerve that his blank verſe is more exceptionable than his rhyme.

We have been frequently diſguſted, in reviewing the compoſitions of modern poets, with gigantic images, mixed metaphors, and inflated expreſſion,—but we ſcarcely recollect in any poem ſuch a total deriliction

of Truth and Nature, as in the work before us. Of this the reader may be enabled to form some conception by the following extract:

'He had a daughter, fair as opening dawn;
Am'ranth immarcessible! sweetest of sweets!
Roses and lilies blended in her cheeks!
Loveliest of the lovely—softly supine!
The form of Venus, chasten'd by Dian's brow!
Dame Nature when she undertook the work,
From every fair inhabitant above,
Borrow'd a gift, to send a wonder here,
Perfect and paragon her own bright image!
'Oh! for an angel's pen profusely soft,
Agile to lavish on the charming maid,
Praises—such as religion gives to saints,
And drawing her sweet picture from my mind,
Strike mortals wonder—smacking of heaven's self!
Painful rapture—proceed we to our tale?'

We would advise the author to consider that, although Mr. Addison observes that the unintelligible style is frequently successful in love, it has not yet been recommended by any critic as the proper language of poetry.

Art. 40. *Elegy on the Death of Mr. Thomas Tuppen*, son of the late Rev. Mr. Tuppen of Bath; to which are added, *The Folly and Madness of War*, and other poetical Pieces. By S. Whitchurch. 4to. pp. 20. The Price not printed. Matthews.

This elegy contains the common reflections on the uncertainty of life, and the mutability of all sublunary things; and a detail of the virtues of the deceased, with his consequent deification, or rather transformation into a guardian angel. Of the versification, the following stanzas may serve as a specimen:

'Lamented Tuppen *, though the Muse may weep,
And unavailing sorrow strike the lyre,
Still thou unconscious in the grave must sleep—
Thy bosom glows not with poetic fire!

'Chaste Liberty, "fair daughter of the skies,"
No more shall charm thy patriotic breast;
Alike to thee, who conquers, or who dies,
The proud oppressor, or the poor oppress.

'Though fortune smil'd not on the orphan youth,
Though neither wealth or titles deck'd his birth,
He lov'd his neighbour, he rever'd the truth,
And where's a nobler character on earth?'

The succeeding poem is on the folly and madness of war. The ingenious author of Joseph Andrews ridicules Colley Cibber for his ignorance, or affected simplicity, in supposing that there was no such passion as envy in the human breast: we are almost inclined to suspect

* It may seem a trivial objection, but surely the introduction of such a name as this, in elegiac verse, has an unfortunate effect.

that

that our humane and well-intentioned bard forgot that ever an inordinate ambition, and an insatiable thirst of dominion, prevailed in the hearts of kings, when he wrote the following stanzas:

'Ah! why do cannons, o'er the frighted main,
Their curs'd destructive entrails thund'ring pour!
Ah! why, to fill a wretched world with slain,
Do swords and bayonets, and spears devour?

'Ah! why do murderous chiefs, ycleped brave,
Delight in carnage, and the battle's rage,
Since fell diseases hurry to the grave,
Victims of every rank, and every age?

'Ah! why do emperors and potent kings,
To war's sad butchery their subjects train;
Since death, without them, has ten thousand stings,
To give the sympathetic bosom pain?'

The Farewel to the year 1794 contains an enumeration of the miseries of war, and of the tragical events of the year, written nearly in the same languid strain. The epitaph to the memory of an amiable and accomplished female is chiefly remarkable for the following line—

'And weep—till thou canst weep no more,'

on which we presume not to make any comment.

Art. 41. *Sonnets and other Poems.* By Samuel Egerton Brydges, Esq. A new Edition. 12mo. pp. 113. 3s. 6d. Boards. Whites. 1795.

The observations which we made on this author's poetical talents, in reviewing the first edition of this work, (vol. lxxiii. p. 391,) are confirmed by a perusal of it in its enlarged state, viz. that he possesses a considerable share of fancy and some powers of versification; though his manner is often stiff, and not quite free from affectation. The following sonnet, supposed to be written by Woodville at his castle of Grafton, (see a novel entitled Mary de Clifford,) may be considered as one of the best in the collection:

'Ye mould'ring towers, these waters deep surround,
That, age succeeding age, the forest-shades
Of yon romantic wilds have proudly crown'd!
The voice of revelry no more invades
Your dreary courts; nor yet with tuneful sound
Do royal Edwards* woo the Aonian maids
To melt the fair, who on their suit have frown'd:
But, shook by time and fate, your glory fades.
No more shall beauty with her winning eyes
Brighten your halls, and o'er your feasts preside;
But sad and lonely, while your master flies
O'er foreign lands his sorrows to divide;
Silence shall reign along your chearless walls,
Save when disturb'd by nightly spirits' calls.'

We do not think that the author is particularly fortunate in his translations of the three odes from Horace, nor in his versification of the songs of the six bards from Ossian.

* Alluding to Edward IV.'s courtship of Elizabeth Woodville at that place.

Art. 42. *A Collection of Hymns and Pſalms*, for public and private Worſhip. Selected and prepared by Dr. Kippis, Dr. Rees, Rev. T. Jervis, and Rev. T. Morgan. 12mo. pp. 512. 3s. Boards. Robinſons, &c. 1795.

Where a publication of this kind is the joint production of four perſons, it cannot be expected to be ſo uniform as if it proceeded ſolely from the judgment of one: but any deficiency of uniformity is amply made up by the *copiouſneſs* of this ſelection, which contains nearly ſeven hundred pieces. It cannot be expected that we ſhould enter on a minute critical examination of all, nor indeed of any, of theſe numerous compoſitions. In looking them through, we have ſeen much to praiſe and little to which we can object; an ingenious correſpondent, however, has pointed out to us an inſtance, in which the zeal of the compilers has overcome their judgment, in an alteration of a pſalm by Dr. Watts (the 415th of the preſent ſelection). The original is a verſion of part of the xith chapter of Matthew, in which the poet, after having given us the complete ſenſe of the paſſage in the firſt three ſtanzas, concludes with the apoſtrophe, "Jeſus, we come at thy command," &c. Inſtead of this, however, the preſent compilers have ſubſtituted "Great God! we come;" &c. thus by the change of perſon entirely altering the *ſentiment* of the hymn, and along with it the propriety of the application; meekneſs and lowlineſs of mind being *human virtues*, and not *divine attributes*.

This uſeful ſelection is enriched by a number of *original* compoſitions, one of which, the 686th, we ſhall quote:

'While ſounds of war are heard around,
And death and ruin ſtrew the ground;
To thee we look, on thee we call,
The Parent and the Lord of all.

'Thou, who haſt ſtamp'd on human kind
The image of a heav'n-born mind,
And in a father's wide embrace
Haſt cheriſh'd all the kindred race;

'O ſee, with what inſatiate rage
Thy ſons their impious battles wage;
How ſpreads deſtruction like a flood,
And brothers ſhed their brothers' blood!

'See guilty paſſions ſpring to birth,
And deeds of hell deform the earth;
While righteouſneſs and juſtice mourn,
And love and pity droop forlorn.

'Great GOD! whoſe pow'rful hand can bind
The raging waves, the furious wind,
O bid the human tempeſt ceaſe,
And huſh the madd'ning world to peace.

'With rev'rence may each hoſtile land
Hear and obey that high command,
Thy Son's bleſt errand from above,
"My creatures, live in mutual love!"

MECHANICS, *&c.*

Art. 43. *Observations on the Ventilation of Rooms; on the Construction of Chimneys; and on Garden Stoves*; principally collected from the Papers left by the late John Whitehurst, F.R.S. 4to. pp. 52. 3s. 6d. sewed. Bent. 1794.

For the communication of this posthumous piece of a valuable and ingenious member of society, the public stands indebted to Dr. Willan. Mr. Whitehurst had finished a work on the subject, but it was destroyed, and never replaced. The editor was therefore at pains to prepare the present publication from loose memorandums and hints dropped in conversation. It was due from us to the utility of these remarks to have noticed them earlier: but it is in the character of the times for political altercation to shove aside useful science.

The tract itself is simple, elementary, and circumstantial. It has few pages in which references are not made to an accompanying set of figures. As description without this aid is apt to be obscure, we shall forbear extracting or abridging any part:—but we think that both artificers and persons, troubled with that proverbial plague of life, a smoaky chimney, will thank us for recommending the pamphlet itself to their notice. The editor bespeaks indulgence: but we feel it our duty to commend him for extricating and arranging the ideas of our late worthy and very ingenious acquaintance *.

MEDICAL, *&c.*

Art. 44. *Directions for warm and cold Sea-bathing:* with Observations on their Application and Effects in different Diseases. By Thomas Reid, M. D. F. A. S. 8vo. pp. 75. 3s. sewed. Cadell, jun. and Davies. 1795.

Few literary publications are more contemptible than the common run of watering-place medical pamphlets. In general, they consist of a heap of crude conjectures, unsupported by a single well-ascertained fact; and most of them appear to be written with sordid views. If nothing substantial can be adduced in favour of the water, specious insinuations are employed to work on the credulity of the uninformed visitants. Some of this class are mere quack bills to advertise the authors and the place. From these censures we are inclined to except only a very few, in which a respectable talent for chemical research has appeared: but among these few we readily place the present pamphlet. Were we to discuss it sentence by sentence, we should raise objections to some of Dr. Reid's opinions and practices—particularly to his fasting vomits in chlorosis: but, confining ourselves to his immediate subject, and to a general opinion, we may observe, with great truth, that he excites no false expectations from sea-bathing, and that his directions are in most cases proper, and in none likely to be productive of hazard to the patient.

As an example of objectionable reasonings, we adduce the following:—'This degree of warmth'—90-100—'probably acts on the system as a *sedative*, but not so as to debilitate. It has appeared to me

* Mr. W. was bred a clock-maker; and no person was better acquainted with the principles of mechanics.

principally

principally to affect the lymphatic system, *invigorating and increasing* its power of absorption.' p. 17. On a perusal of the whole passage, the author will appear still more at cross purposes with himself than in this short extract.

THEOLOGY, &c.

Art. 45. *Seven Sermons, preached on particular Occasions:* By Joseph Robertson, Minister of Sleights, near Whitby, Yorkshire. 4to. pp. 200. 3s. Boards. Dilly. 1795.

These Discourses are on the following subjects;—suppression of vice and impiety, the duties of all persons, especially those in authority;—christian love;—preparation for death;—caution to youth, against bad company, and life of sensual pleasure;—duty of thankfulness to God; addressed particularly to *Sea-faring* people;—humanity and beneficence;—to which is added, a sermon on the duty of a personal service, in defence of ourselves and our country, preached before the *Volunteers* of Whitby in June last.—In the general principle of regard to our country, which this last sermon maintains, it may be concluded that all persons will agree, though they may not entirely concur in the justice and propriety of some remarks more peculiar to the immediate occasion: but whatever exception of this kind might be made, the discourse is still good;—and, indeed, we may apply that general epithet to all the sermons in this volume. They are practical, sensible, lively, and persuasive; and their tendency is to advance Christian piety and morality.

Art. 46. *Conjectures on the Prophecies of Daniel, and the Apocalypse of St. John*, in order to ascertain the Periods when the Vials of Wrath will finish, agreeably to the Dates given in Daniel, Chap. 12, as they appear to respect Russia, Germany, France, Constantinople, and the Roman Provinces in Asia. Small 8vo. pp. 64. 1s. 6d. sewed. Faulder.

It is by no means wonderful that the present eventful period should lead the thoughts of Christians to the predictions contained in their sacred books: nor is it very surprizing if, in some instances, this should produce accounts, fanciful, extravagant, and contradictory.—Time will gradually develope the whole of the mystery.—We do not, however, mean to discourage calm researches, chastized by judgment, and guided by truth, reason, and science.

The Author of the little treatise now before us appears not to be destitute of that historical knowlege which is requisite for this kind of study, nor of some ingenuity and dexterity in applying passages to his purpose: but his remarks are offered rather like notes for the assistance of private study, than for general information. We cannot pretend to give our readers a full idea of his *schemes*, even did we clearly understand them.—We will not dispute with him concerning his calculations, which signify, if we read him rightly, that the predictions relative to *Rome*, *Russia*, and *France*, will receive their final accomplishment in the year 1796: *Constantinople* follows in 1826, and the *Eastern empire* in 1871. These are some of his *suppositions*; and, having agreed with others that the *woman in the wilderness* is the Gospel,

Gospel, he pronounces the *wilderness* to be *Russia*, and *France* no other than the *bottomless pit:* but it appears to be only since its late violent concussions that it has obtained the distinction here allotted.

Separate, however, from this hasty conclusion, there are other parts of the tract which do not accord with sober attention and judgment. Of this kind is the *conjecture* that *Rev.* vi. v. 2. which mentions a *white horse*, whose rider had a *bow* and a *crown*, signifies *Russia*, because, several ages past, some emblems of this kind accompanied a Muscovite idol.—He might with equal propriety have said, that the *white horse* is the *electorate* of *Hanover*.

Again, we are informed that the *red horse* in the same chapter denotes *Germany*, and the *black* horse, *Great Britain*. All this is so futile, and so absurd, especially when he appeals, as he does, to the horse at Charing-cross, that we are nearly disposed to abandon all favourable opinion of the writer.

Art. 47. *Prayers and Thanksgivings*, principally intended for the Use of Children, but to be used, on suitable Occasions, by Persons of all Ages and Degrees; with Rules for the Regulation of a Sunday-school; to which are added, brief Reflections on the proper Employment of our Time: also a few pertinent Passages, carefully selected from the Holy Scriptures, against Swearing, Lying, Evil-speaking, and Intemperance. By Samuel Hopkinson, B. D. late Fellow of Clare-Hall. 12mo. pp. 132. 1s. Newbery.

This full title sufficiently declares the nature and design of this little publication. So pious, charitable, and laudable, are the intentions of the author, that criticism must stand at a respectful distance.—In his advertisement, addressed to the inhabitants of Etton, of which parish we conclude he is the minister, he blames the omission, now become so prevalent, of the usual and proper acknowlegements of Divine Providence before and after stated meals;—the short ejaculations supposed to be used at entering and leaving the established places of public worship;—and the neglect of evening and morning devotions; for all which he here prescribes some suitable forms; together with a prayer for youth, and others for those who preside in a Sunday-school. We should add that, with a commendable warmth, he declares himself a strenuous advocate for *practical* religion, in distinction from all that is merely *formal* and *ceremonious*.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 48. *Sermons*; *and Tracts upon various Subjects*; Literary, Critical, and Political. Vol. I. By the Rev. Richard Lickorish, M. D. Late of Lincoln College, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 333. 6s. 6d. Boards. White.

What would be thought of an architect, who, building a house without any previous plan, should make the porch larger than the main body, and, to render the disproportion still more enormous, should add, at the back, a prodigious mass of out-houses? Such an irregular and singular edifice is presented to the reader in the present volume; where two sermons, contained in 71 pages, are introduced by a pre-

a preface of 45 pages, and a preliminary dissertation with its appendix 167 pages in length, and followed by an appendix and notes which together fill up 81 pages. This, at least, cannot be said to be making up a book like a workman. We should, however, have been very ready to overlook any irregularity in point of form, had the defect been compensated by the excellence of the matter:—but here too we find ourselves unable to make so favourable a report as we could wish. The two discourses, the subjects of which are *the nature and design of poverty and riches, with observations on the present inequality of mankind in this respect*, are nothing more than a diffuse amplification of obvious and trite ideas. In the preliminary dissertation, the author dwells largely on himself and his own affairs, and in a way which only serves to shew that he has suffered much mortification and disappointment. He very feelingly laments that, under the present ecclesiastical establishment, emoluments are lavished on unworthy objects; while mere merit and mere learning starve unpitied, unbefriended, and neglected. He insists, with much vehemence, on the great hardships sustained by the regular clergy, and on the disgrace brought on religion and the church by the ordination of improper and unqualified persons. Dissatisfied, however, as he is with the management of affairs in the established church, and notwithstanding all the neglect which he has experienced, he remains a zealous advocate for the divine origin of episcopacy, and strenuously asserts that the church of England is in this circumstance, and *in all other respects*, formed after the model of the primitive church, and consequently is truly apostolical. This subject, as well as other topics casually introduced in this miscellaneous discourse, is treated in a cursory and declamatory manner.

The appendix to the sermons, which treats wholly on the politics of the day, is written in the same desultory style with the rest of the work:—but it sufficiently appears from this part of the volume, that the author, at the time when it was written, was a friend to the French revolution, and to the immediate reformation of parliament. He speaks of the retreat of the combined armies from France, as a proof that they were engaged in a cause which could not claim the protection of Heaven. He complains of the duplicity of courtiers, laments the defection of Mr. Burke from the cause of freedom, and mentions, as a proof of the sad influence of power and interest in working changes in opinions, Mr. Pitt's desertion of his former principles, and his opposition to those reforms for the necessity of which he once earnestly contended. We notice these particulars, for a reason which will appear in the next article.

Art. 49. *An Appeal to the Public, on the Subject of Politics.* Containing a Refutation of some gross and unfounded Misrepresentation of the Author's Sentiments on the above interesting Question, &c. &c. &c. By the Rev. Richard Lickorish, M. D. Late of Lincoln College, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 163. 3s. 6d. Boards. White.

This appeal can be considered in no other light than as Dr. Lickorish's recantation of political opinions expressed in his former work*. In a long and fulsome dedication to the Premier, he declares his de-

* See the preceding article.

testation

testation of the present principles of the French, his conviction of the necessity of the present war, and his earnest wish that Mr. Pitt may long *superintend the councils* of this nation; and he earnestly exhorts Mr. Pitt to pay some attention to the situation of those of the clergy, who, from the want of friends among the great, are left without that regard and attention to which, from their merit, they are entitled. Perhaps the Doctor may by this time have a nearer view of that

——— *Latium, sedes ubi fata quietas*
Ostendunt ———

which he seems to have had in distant prospect, when he wrote his sermons and tracts. We cannot, however, suppose that the present volume, notwithstanding all the learned quotations with which it abounds, will contribute much towards establishing his claim to the attention of his superiors on the score of literary merit. It may indeed serve to prove that he is very desirous of being thought a zealous advocate for the present measures; and that he dreads nothing so much as that the infamous calumny, which has been raised against him, should gain credit, that the healths of Dr. Priestley and of Mr. Paine were lately given by him as a toast.

The public are encouraged to expect from this writer a second volume of *tracts and essays*; in which, besides the farther prosecution of his moral and theological disquisitions, he means to introduce brief observations on the study of *physic*, and short remarks on the importance of *agriculture*; all which subjects he is no doubt well qualified to discuss, as we learn from this publication that he at present sustains the triple character of a divine, a physician, and a farmer.

Art. 50. *A Collection of Poems and Letters.*—POEMS, &c. 1. An Ode from Sans Souci, Characteristic of the late Northern Potentate, with Annotations by Machiavel in the Shades. 2. Lines on the Death of Infants, &c. 3. A Father's Soliloquy over a sleeping Child, before his going to Prison. 4. Verses on the Death of a Son four Years old. 5. On the late Fast for national Sins. 6. On the French Standards hung up in St. Paul's.—LETTERS: 1. On German Electors and Princes hiring out their Subjects for Soldiers. 2. An Account of the Author's Publications in Support of *Universal* Redemption, and of his Objections to an *exclusive Priesthood*. 3. A short View of the Signs of the Times, drawn from a larger Work on the Numbers in the Law, the Prophets, and the Gospel. 4. A Letter on the Military Profession, to a Gentleman who, from Doubt and Fear of its being inconsistent with his Christian Profession, resigned his Commission. 5. A Letter on the present Rage for Fragments of Prophecies not founded on Scripture; in which the late Mr. Toplady's Prophecy of Christopher Love, given by the late Dr. Gifford, Librarian to the British Museum, is considered: with some Notice of the Bishops of Llandaff and Rochester. 8vo. pp. 82. 1s. 6d. Sael.

To the long enumeration of the contents of this pamphlet given in the title, it is only necessary to add that both the poetry and the prose bear strong marks of eccentricity, and of an enthusiastic turn of mind.

mind. The author appears to be a great enemy to priests, and a zealous advocate for prophets, modern as well as antient. Indeed he is himself a kind of prophet, revealing to his readers the signs of the times, and teaching them to expect in the year 1805 some great revolution in the church,—though he does not very clearly inform us of what sort it will be. To the last two pieces are subscribed the name of Richard Clarke.

Art. 51. *The Blessings of Billy's Budget, the Heaven born Tinker:* a sermonical Address to the Right Hon. John Bull. By a Loyal Layman. 8vo. 6d. 1795.

The late taxes on wine and hair-powder, and the *justice* and *necessity* of the war in which we are engaged, compose the subject matter of this pamphlet, which is drawn up in the form of an ironical address of the Premier to the nation, expatiating on the advantages of war, poverty, and starvation.—Concerning this little piece not much either good or bad can be said; the *sentiments* will be differently appreciated by the different parties: but with respect to the *manner* there can be only one opinion; for all men must concur in the belief that our present situation, our past transactions, and our future expectations or apprehensions, are much too serious to be made the subject of jocularity.

Art. 52. *Maternal Letters to a young Lady on her Entrance into Life.* 12mo. pp. 86. 2s. sewed. Debrett. 1795.

This is one of those publications which are recommended to attention rather by the importance of the subject, than by any extraordinary entertainment which they are likely to afford. The letters contain much wholesome advice on religious, moral, and prudential subjects, expressed in unaffected language; and they are very proper to be put into the hands of young females when they leave the boarding-school, to correct the false notions which they are too apt to gather there, and to prepare them for filling, with credit and advantage, the most important of all female relations,—those of a wife and a mother.

Art. 53. *An Historical Account of Ludlow Castle*; the ancient Palace of the Princes of Wales, and Supreme Court of Judicature of the President and Council of the Welch Marches. By W. Hodges, Attorney at Law. Small 8vo. pp. 110. 2s. stitched. Evans. 1794.

Though this writer appears to have been industrious in collecting materials for a favourite object, we cannot congratulate him on any remarkable success. The pamphlet is indeed amusing and well written: but it is rather extraordinary that so noted and antient a building should furnish so few memorials, or that they should not be of a more interesting nature. It was erected, Wharton says, about 1112: but, if, according to concurring testimony, it was raised by Roger de Montgomery, it must have somewhat of an earlier date, as he died in the year 1094. The design of this castle was to repel the ravages of its turbulent neighbours, the Welsh. In the war between Stephen and the Empress Maud, 1138, it was besieged by the former, attended by Henry, son of David king of Scotland. It is a memorable circumstance,

cumstance, that this young prince narrowly escaped being snatched from his horse by means of an iron hook fastened to the end of a rope; king Stephen is said to have rescued him at the hazard of his own life. [Rapin.] In the reign of Henry VII. Arthur Prince of Wales resided here in splendour and magnificence, on his marriage with Katherine of Arragon. The court for the *Marches* rendered it very considerable in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Queen Elizabeth. This court, first, as it seems, established for beneficial purposes, in process of time became not only needless, but burdensome and oppressive: it was wholly abolished in the first year of William and Mary; which gave, we are told, a fatal wound to the grandeur of the castle.

Milton's mask of Comus is known to have been first represented in this fortress, during the presidency of the Earl of Bridgwater, 1634, and took its rise, Mr. Warton says, from a little incident in that family. Dr. Warburton's emphatical remark on Comus, here recited, and perhaps not generally known, is worthy of notice;—"This poem contains all the majesty of sentiment that ennobles *tragedy*, and all the sweetness of description that charms in the mask."

In one of the towers of Ludlow castle, *Butler* is said to have written his well known poem of Hudibras: it is here observed that, if this witty poet was reduced to the distress which is sometimes represented, it was more the consequence of his own pride, than of any inattention in others.

This edifice, however eminent and princely it might once be, is now ruinous and deserted; although the public are still burdened with the expence of a governor.

The appendix to this tract gives a catalogue of the presidents of the council for the Marches in Wales, commencing with William Smith, bishop of Lincoln, in prince Arthur's time, and concluding with Charles Earl of Macclesfield. To this list are added some monumental inscriptions, and original letters relative to the business transacted at this place.

Besides a south-west view of the castle in its present state, we find also the sketch of a leaden urn, lately discovered in a garden at Leominster, with an inscription informing the reader that it contains the *Harte* of Sir Henry Sidney, (some years president of the council,) and that he died in the year 1586.—It is recorded that the celebrated Sir Philip Sidney, son of Sir Henry, died in the same year, in consequence of the wound which he received at the battle of Zutphen.

Art. 54. *An Historical, Geographical, Commercial, and Philosophical View of the American United States, and of the European Settlements in America and the West Indies.* By W. Winterbotham. 8vo. 4 Vols. 1l. 16s. Boards. Ridgway, &c. 1795.

The public is certainly much indebted to Mr. Winterbotham for having, in the tedious hours of imprisonment, laudably exerted himself in compiling this work. Like RALEIGH, who produced his valuable history of the *old world* while he was confined *as a state prisoner* in the Tower of London, this historian of the *new world* writes in a similarly unfortunate situation;—may he finally meet with a better *requital* than that which his great predecessor experienced!

Mr.

Mr. W. has availed himſelf, in this publication, of the labours of moſt of the hiſtorians who have written on the ſubject of America, and has brought into one comprehenſive view the reſult of their inquiries and obſervations. Where he had not the vanity to conceive himſelf capable of correcting their language, he has adopted their expreſſions; ſo that, in a long narrative, he has often, as he modeſtly expreſſes himſelf, no other claim to merit than what ariſes from ſelection, and a few connecting ſentences.

The general utility of this work, with the judgment and diligence diſcovered by the editor, will, we doubt not, enſure it that encouragement to which it is entitled.

Art. 55. *The Beauties of Literature*, or Elegant Extracts in Proſe. 12mo. pp. 238. 3s. 6d. ſtitched. Riebau. 1794.

Numerous as publications of this kind are, we ſtill find thoſe which are likely to prove both acceptable and uſeful; and in this rank we muſt place the little performance before us. The ſelections are from writings antient and modern: among the former, we have the names of Plutarch, Livy, Xenophon, Cicero, &c. among the latter, Addiſon, Sterne, Johnſon, Hurd, Gregory, Harris, Blair, &c. and a good extract from Swedenborg, on neighbourly love. The firſt part of the compilement contains diſſertations on ſubjects moral and religious; the ſecond is hiſtorical; the third conſiſts of allegories and tales.

Art. 56. *Lucifer's Lectures*; or *the Infernal Tribune*; Advice from Hell, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 60. 6d. Downes, &c.

An imitation, if not a mere tranſcript, of the "Sure Guide to Hell *:" ſee Rev. vol. ii. No. for March 1750, p. 370. The king, miniſters, clergy, ladies, and the public at large, all come in for their ſhare of advice from his Satannic majeſty. That part which ſeems to have moſt merit is 'Advice to Parents,' for which we refer to the pamphlet, p. 45, 46.

Art. 57. *An Eſſay on the reigning Vices and Follies of Mankind*, and the Cauſes of Natural Danger and Calamity, deduced from hiſtorical Evidence: to which are added, Succinct Obſervations on the Happineſs and Tranquillity that would ultimately reſult from a due Regard to the Principles of Virtue and Religion. By Thomas Carpenter. 8vo. 1s. Allen and Weſt. 1795.

Although entitled an eſſay, this pamphlet is, in effect, a ſermon, without a text, on the general topics of luxury and corruption. The author, or preacher, exhibits, in a declamatory way, the conſequences of vice on the ſtate of mankind through the ſeveral ages of the world, and concludes with an exhortation to the practice of virtue. Such general diſcourſes cannot be expected to produce much effect on ſociety, nor to require, in a literary review, more than general notice.

Art. 58. *The wonderful Love of God to Men:* or Heaven opened on Earth. 8vo. pp. 190. 5s. bound. Vernor and Hood. 1794.

This book being altogether unlike any other which we have ever ſeen—although, in the long courſe of our labours, we have ſeen

* A tract which we have not ſeen for many years.

many

many strange publications—we can refer it to no known class of books, and must therefore denominate it, and suffer it to remain, a *non-descript*. It cannot properly be called a treatise of mystical theology; since, though it abounds with theological terms, and with something like theological ideas, and is throughout mysterious, a great part of it belongs, we suppose, to physics; for it treats of fires, airs, electræs, waters, earths, ether, and auroræs: yet it is not an institute of natural philosophy, for it communicates nothing, as far as we are able to discover, which has the resemblance of information or instruction, concerning any thing in heaven or earth.

Art. 59. *A Prize Declamation, spoken in Trinity College Chapel, May* 28, 1794, on the following Subject: "R. Cromwell, if he had possessed his Father's Abilities, might have retained the Protectorate." To which is added a Speech delivered December 18, being the Day of public Commemoration, to prove "That the Reign of Anne has been improperly called the Augustan Age of English Genius." By C. V. Le Grice. 8vo. pp. 43. 1s. Robinsons. 1795.

This declamation is a juvenile performance. Assuming very questionable, if not *false* grounds, the author lightly skims over a subject, thoroughly to investigate which would require a profound knowlege of mankind, and very persevering attention. To treat the question properly, it will be necessary to trace the effects of Richard's *real* character, from the time at which his father assumed the protectorate; and we shall then find that Oliver, owing to the defect of energy in the mind of his son, was obliged to devolve on Lambert and his other officers, in order to retain their allegiance, a large share of that authority which otherwise he would have conferred on his son. Hence their influence was necessarily increased, and their expertness in political manœuvres completed; whereas, had Richard Cromwell been an able second to his father, he would have enjoyed the principal office of trust and power; and, obtaining the same ascendency over the minds of the army, the officers, and the parliament, which his father possessed, he would, without the smallest shew or idea of opposition, have peaceably succeeded the protector: inheriting all his power, without the personal odium attached to it, and with all the advantages of succession by inheritance. To suppose, as the author has done, that Richard, at his father's death, had for the first time displayed the superior abilities of Oliver, was supposing a miracle,—an impossibility.

In the commemoration speech, Mr. Le Grice appears to much greater advantage; and we think that he has, in a great measure, proved his point: though at the same time we must enter our protest against degrading Pope to a level with Akenside, Gray, Burns, Collins, and the rest of those whom the author has introduced as rivals to that admirable poet.

Art. 60. *An accurate Account* of Lord Macartney's Embassy to China; carefully abridged from *the original Work*: with Alterations and Corrections by the Editor, who was also an Attendant on the Em-

bassy. Embellished with a striking Likeness of the present Emperor, &c. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Vernor and Hood.

Abridged from Mr. Anderson's book, of which we gave an account in our Review for May last. This is one of the prettiest catchpenny publications that has lately courted the attention of those who are impatiently expecting more satisfactory details.

Art. 61. *A call to Recollection, Resolution, and Exertion,* with a View to the present State and essential Interests of this Country. By one of its faithful Friends. 12mo. 4d. or 3s. 6d. per Dozen. Rivingtons.

Recollection and *resolution,* on important occasions, and wisely regulated, are highly requisite; and it is peculiarly proper to recommend them earnestly at any time when a regard to truth and virtue appear to be on the decline. In respect to the little pamphlet before us, it is well written, apparently with the best design, and contains much important advice and admonition,—so far we certainly and heartily wish it success;—if there be also in it any party-spirit, misrepresentation, or mistaken principle, we wish that it might be rectified—as the means of rendering the publication more effectually and extensively beneficial.

Art. 62. *Sentiments on Eloquence.* In a Letter addressed to ——— Esq. of Gray's Inn. By a Gentleman of Shropshire. 8vo. 1s. Longman.

This slight effusion, on a trite subject, (the 'first and last attempt of a very young man in the character of an author,') will probably excite no great attention beyond the circle in which it appeared. The performance itself is, indeed, *very young*; yet, as the writer's judgment will grow older as his years may increase, we would not wish him to resolve that this first shall be his '*last* attempt' at authorship. When he has read more, and thought deeper, his observations will, in course, be more worthy of the approbation of discerning readers. —His profession, we understand, is a branch of the law.

Art. 63. *A Voyage to New South Wales,* with a Description of the Country, and the Manners and Customs of the Natives in the Vicinity of *Botany Bay,* &c. By George Barrington, now Superintendant of the Convicts at Paramatta. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Symonds. 1795.

We confess that we took up this performance with prejudice and suspicion, arising from the *name* which appears in the title-page as being that of the author. Not that we supposed the celebrated Mr. George Barrington to be incapable of writing a very readable book: but the well-known character and exploits of the man at once brought to our minds such a recollection of past imposture and depredation on the public, that it was impossible for us to read a line of *such* a production without caution and distrust. Our suspicions, indeed, were not all placed to the account of the writer. We distrusted the pretensions of the ostensible author, being well aware that there are methods of picking pockets unknown, perhaps, even to Mr. B.—eminent as he has been for skill in the profession. We had doubts whether some ingenious

genious *hand* had not made free with Mr. B. himself; or, at least, with a *name* of so much *celebrity* and *promise*.—On perusing, however, a few pages of the work, our suspicions abated; and, before we arrived at its conclusion, not a doubt remained of its authenticity. It certainly carries with it a sufficiency of internal evidence that it is really the performance of that ingenious adventurer; and it appears to contain a faithful and not unentertaining account of the incidents that occurred in the voyage,—of the laudable means * by which he gained the good-will of the commanding officers of the ship,—of the uncommon regard that was (deservedly, indeed,) paid to him by the Governor, on his arrival at Port Jackson,—and of his appointment to the considerable office of superintendant of the convicts at Paramatta †, one of the new towns in that settlement.

Besides what relates to the writer's personal story, we have here a well-written account [a few pardonable slips of the pen excepted,] of the state of this very singular colony; with an amusing sketch of the country, its soil, produce, native inhabitants, natural history, &c. Nor are such particulars, as travellers usually note, totally overlooked with regard to the various places at which the ship touched in the course of the passage from England, viz. Teneriffe, the Cape of Good Hope, &c. at which the author had every opportunity (usually allowed to passengers, *not convicts*,) of landing, and viewing those places and countries, &c.

Art. 64. *The Youth's Mentor*, by Precept and Example, in Prose and Verse. 8vo. pp. 81. 1s. Parsons. 1795.

The present work is a new edition of one which was called "Helps for Short Memories."

We are very willing to believe that the compiler of these maxims intended well; on which account we shall forbear criticism, leaving our readers to form their own judgment from the following extracts:

'GOSPEL. The sacred writings are stiled the gospel, because they contain glad tidings of salvation for all men.

'The gospel was, doubtless, preached over all the world by the Apostles, and their successors, as appears by three hundred and eighteen bishops being at the council of Nice, out of all the chief provinces in the world.'

'JUSTIFICATION OF MAN. We are accounted righteous before God, only for the merit of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ by faith, and not for our works or deservings. Wherefore, that we are justified by faith only, is a most wholesome doctrine, and very full of comfort; as more largely is expressed in the homily of justification.'

'TRINITY. The doctrine of the Trinity, confirmed by the experience of every real Christian. If the love of God the Father, the grace of God the Saviour, and the testimony of God the Holy

* He had been, particularly, so fortunate in assisting to quell a conspiracy of the convicts, that he was considered, in some measure, as the preserver of the ship.

† About 400 convicts were stationed at Paramatta:—enough to exercise the utmost vigilance of a superintendant!

Ghoſt be in, and experienced by you, it will confirm you in the doctrine of the Trinity, without doubting the truth or cavilling at the incomprehenſible nature of it.'

Art. 65. *A brief Account of the Moral and Political Acts of the Kings and Queens of England*, from William the Conqueror to the Revolution in the Year 1688: with Reflections tending to prove the Neceſſity of a Reform in Parliament. 8vo. pp. 281. 5s. Boards. Symonds. 1795.

A faithful delineation of public characters is not to be expected from violent partizans of any claſs. The author of this account, who appears to be a decided enemy to regal government, has ſketched portraits of the kings of England, which are evidently intended to leave on the mind of the reader an impreſſion unfriendly to monarchs. The pictures are, it is true, in the main, conſonant to hiſtory: but the painter diſcovers a ſtrong propenſity to catch only the diſpleaſing lines of the original; and even theſe he draws with a degree of coarſeneſs and rudeneſs, which, however well ſuited to anſwer the purpoſes of temporary excitement, is ill adapted to aſſiſt the reader in forming a diſpaſſionate and impartial judgment of men and things.

Art. 66. *On the Neceſſity of adopting ſome Meaſures to reduce the preſent Number of Dogs*; with a ſhort Account of Hydrophobia, and the moſt approved Remedies againſt it. A Letter to Francis Anneſley, Eſq. M. P. By the Rev. Edward Barry, M. D. 8vo. 1s. Richardſon.

We ſee nothing in this ſhort performance that can juſtify us in recommending it to the notice of our readers.

Art. 67. *A new, correct, and much-improved Hiſtory of the Iſle of Wight*, from the earlieſt Times of authentic Information, to the preſent Period: comprehending whatever is curious or worthy of Attention in Natural Hiſtory, with its Civil, Eccleſiaſtical, and Military State in the various Ages, both antient and modern. 8vo. pp. 666. 8s. Boards. Newport, printed for and by J. Albin, and ſold by Scatcherd and Whitaker, London. 1795.

Conſidering that the Iſle of Wight was not long ago made the ſubject of a reſpectable quarto volume by Sir Richard Worſley, and has ſince employed the pen of more than one touriſt, we ſhould not have imagined that an accurate and copious hiſtory of it was ſtill a *deſideratum*. The compiler of the preſent volume, however, impreſſed with the importance of the deſign, has taken much pains to accumulate every ſpecies of information which might gratify the curioſity of his readers. To thoſe who are not peculiarly intereſted in the iſland, we cannot, indeed, promiſe much amuſement from a peruſal of the contents; which will for the moſt part ſeem as unimportant in their nature, as they are dry from the mode of narration. A very good map is, however, annexed to the volume; which, we are informed, is ſold ſeparately, together with the appendix, indicating the three principal routes taken by thoſe who wiſh to ſurvey the ſingular beauties of the iſland; and which, indeed, are well worth the attention of the obſerving touriſt. On the whole, Mr. Albin's *hiſtorical* details form no improper ſupplement to the *deſcriptive* accounts of this charming iſland;

iſland; which wants nothing but *turnpike roads* to render it, in every reſpect, delightful to the ſummer traveller.

Art. 68. *An Eſſay on the Progreſs of Human Underſtanding.* By J. A. O'Keeffe, M. D. A. M. 8vo. pp. 60. 1s. 6d. Griffiths. 1795.

A virulent attack on religion and monarchy in general, and on Chriſtianity in particular: concluding with '*A Sketch on the Literature of New Philoſophy*,' purporting to be an explanation of the outlines of a ſyſtem of moral philoſophy, by Profeſſor Kant, which has excited conſiderable notice on the Continent. The mutilated ſtate in which this new ſyſtem is here preſented to us precludes any remarks on the ſubject: nor would it be worth while, in ſuch an abundance of greater faults, to deſcend to the more minute tranſgreſſions againſt grammar and idiomatic propriety.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 69. *The Goſpel Miſſion, or the Teſtimony of the Spirit eſſential to the Impoſition of Hands.* Preached before the Biſhop of London, and the Candidates for Holy Orders, at the General Ordination at Fulham Palace, June 21, 1795. By John Owen, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Cadell jun. and Davies.

The object of this ſermon is to ſet forth the qualifications neceſſary in a miniſter of the goſpel, for the proper and conſcientious diſcharge of his duty. A plain man, who had no guide but common ſenſe, in diſcourſing on this ſubject, might have conſidered purity of heart, regularity of conduct, a competent ſhare of learning, and above all a firm belief in the doctrines of Chriſtianity, accompanied with a zeal for their propagation tempered by candour and exalted by univerſal benevolence, as fully ſufficient to enable a perſon to fill even that important ſtation in life with ſatisfaction to himſelf and great advantage to the community: but Mr. Owen ſeems to paſs over qualifications of this ſort as mere human attainments, and to conſider divine influence as the only eſſential requiſite. That the operation of the Holy Spirit on the preaching of the apoſtles, and above all on the miracles which they wrought, was ſufficiently manifeſt, few Chriſtians will deny; and that they communicated their ſpiritual gifts to their immediate ſucceſſors is likewiſe generally acknowleged. How long thoſe miraculous gifts *continued* has been much diſputed by the learned: but, in the preſent age, we ſhould conceive that no perſon, without great preſumption, could lay claim to divine illumination. We are therefore much ſurpriſed that Mr. Owen ſhould think that it requires, to enforce the doctrines of Chriſtianity with ſucceſs, a ſpecies of eloquence which ſhall paſs the limits of rational perſuaſion,—combining the influence of God with the energies of man, and ſuperadding to the form of ſound words the demonſtration of the ſpirit and power. It may, however, be granted that this concluſion ſeems to be a fair reſult from his premiſes: for he aſſerts that 'the truths which Chriſtianity reveals are myſteries inſcrutable to worldly wiſdom; poſitions grounded rather on record than demonſtration; in whoſe diſcuſſion the powers of the mind enjoy but a limited privilege, and reaſon finds only a ſubordinate employ.'—This paſſage is ſo looſely worded, that it is capable of two meanings:

meanings: if by the truths of Chriſtianity he means the incarnation, the atonement, and the other myſterious doctrines which God has thought proper to reveal to us by the miniſtration of Jeſus Chriſt, it is true, but not to the purpoſe: if he includes, under the general term truths, every doctrine contained in the goſpel, it is to his purpoſe, but not true: for the moral duties inculcated by the great Author of our religion are eaſy, plain, and intelligible; and ſo far are they from being contrary, that they are ſtrictly conformable, to uncorrupted reaſon, and conſequently muſt be approved by every unprejudiced mind. We muſt therefore differ from Mr. Owen, and declare it as our opinion that human reaſon, when properly cultivated and judiciouſly directed, is at leaſt equal to the taſk of enforcing with good effect thoſe great and important truths which are revealed to us in the goſpel, and which involve in them our preſent comfort and future happineſs.

Through the whole of this diſcourſe, the author ſeems to be infected with a gloomy and melancholy caſt of devotion; and, in the ſad picture which he draws of human corruption, he appears not ſufficiently to have conſidered that, in too many inſtances, the vices of men and their conſequent miſery proceed rather from the perverſeneſs of the will than from the error of the underſtanding. Moſt of us know and feel the force of moral and religious truths; and we ſhould act conformably to their dictates, were not that conviction too frequently overpowered by our appetites and irregular paſſions.

Art. 70. *A Word of Comfort to the Poor in their preſent Neceſſity:* preached in the Pariſh Church of Wanſtead, Eſſex, July 19, 1795. By the Rev. Samuel Glaſſe, D. D. F. R. S. &c. 8vo. 6d. Rivingtons.

In every calamity, the human mind naturally flies to religion for relief; and it is ſeldom, if ever, diſappointed. As it is, therefore, the duty of the parochial clergy, in times of ſcarcity and diſtreſs, to adminiſter to the people committed to their care every conſolation in their power, we are not ſurpriſed that ſuch a man as Dr. Glaſſe, reſpectable for his learning and for his piety, ſhould addreſs his pariſhioners on ſo intereſting a ſubject. The ſermon before us is plain, ſenſible, and calculated to do good: but it is not embelliſhed with any peculiar elegancies of language, and the duties which it inculcates are not enforced by any uncommon ſtrength of argument or powers of genius. Indeed they were not to be expected on the occaſion.

Art. 71. Preached in the Church at Falmouth, Nova-Scotia, 10th of May 1793. Being the Day appointed by Proclamation for a General Faſt and Humiliation before Almighty God. By the Rev. Wm. Cochran, Preſident of the King's College, Windſor. 8vo. pp. 15. Printed at Halifax.

The author of this diſcourſe, proceeding on the general doctrine of faſt-ſermons that God viſits nations for their ſins, aſcribes to the crimes of the French the miſeries which they experienced, and exhorts us to take warning and repent, leſt we ſhould fall under ſimilar viſitations. The text is Jer. v. 9. We wiſh that all who read his ſermon, whether in Nova-Scotia or England, may liſten to ſuch good advice: but we fear that many of us are more inclined to reprobate French infidelity and immorality than to practiſe Chriſtian virtue.

Art.

Art. 72. *The Age of Unbelief*, a second Part to *The Man of Sin*. Preached in Spring Garden Chapel, Feb. 8, 1795. By William Jones, M. A. F. R. S. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons, &c.

Of the first part of Mr. Jones's very orthodox opinions on the above-mentioned subjects, we gave an account in the M. R. for May 1794. Those who admired that discourse will, without doubt, be no less pleased with this kindred composition, which is equally rational and edifying.

Art. 73. *The Loss of the Righteous lamented and improved.* Preached Aug. 10, 1794, to a Congregation of Protestant Dissenters, at Ebenezer Chapel, Leeds, on the Death of the Rev. William Price, their late Minister. By Edward Parsons. 8vo. 6d. Matthews.

Though the author of this sermon has not suffered the pillars of his orthodoxy to be shaken by philosophy, he has ventured to decorate the antient edifice with a few modern ornaments. Old puritanical sentiments he expresses in a neat and pointed style, not taught in the schools of his ancestors; and he sometimes embellishes his discourse with a poetical quotation, as modern taste often patches an old Gothic church with an elegant altar-piece, executed by some fashionable artist.

CORRESPONDENCE.

'*To the* MONTHLY REVIEWERS.

'GENTLEMEN,

'IN your last Review, p. 247, the mistake you notice in the old French quotation is evidently a typographical error. Instead of *fils* and *pere*, it has been in the original *fils* and *frere*; Thomas of Lancaster having been son of Henry the IVth, and brother to Henry the Vth, styled also the King of France. The author, though writing in French, seems to have been too good an English courtier to allow Charles VI. or Charles VII. any notice or title in their native domain.

'The combat, which in that and the succeeding pages you describe, did not perhaps take place till after the succession of Richard II. This is probable not only from Edward the IIId's last sickness being mentioned as some time preceding that combat, but from the concourse of people being compared to that of the coronation. If Richard was on the throne, the coronation would be an apposite and seasonable allusion; which it could scarcely be at the end of Edward's long reign. For instance, if in the present day we compare any crowd to a coronation, it will seem far fetched, and many will not be able to appreciate the simile: but some of you may remember that, thirty odd years ago, the coronation was a familiar comparison for every numerous or splendid assemblage of people.

'A BORDERER.'

'GENTLEMEN,

'IN reviewing Mr. Parsons's Work on Monuments, (Nov. p. 267.) you quote two Latin Lines as "curious and pretty." They are by no means *new*; I have met with them three times: they are taken from a Latin prosopopœian dialogue between Atimetus and Homonœa, the last stanza of which is *correctly* as follows:

Immatura perî: sed tu felicior annos
Vive tuos, conjux optime, vive meos.

Quodque

Quodque mihi eripuit forsimmatura juventæ,
Id tibi victuro proroget ulterius.

The whole poem is very beautiful. I am, &c. 'A. FRESTON.'

'GENTLEMEN,

'THE editor of Curiosities of Literature, observing your article respecting his criticisms on Virgil, (Rev. Nov. p. 355-6,) is desirous of informing you, that they are merely gathered from the various *Ana*; with as much faithfulness and as little discernment, as some verbal commentators have lately shewn. He acknowledges the remark respecting Virgil's Simile of the Nightingale; but that objectionable passage is literally taken from *Huet*; and he confesses that he was led away, at a *juvenile* period of life, by the strictures of this great scholar, who he now perceives had more erudition than taste. As for some of the observations he deems them to be just. But was it ever supposed that Virgil's reputation was in the least endangered by such observations, by any one, but the anonymous author who has contrived to form an apology, by heaping annotations upon annotations?'

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†*† F. V. will excuse our not printing his polite letter, as we have read so many different accounts of the point in dispute, that we cannot agree with him in thinking that it is decided.

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§†§ We should be glad to oblige J. C. but his request leads to a matter that is really quite out of our province. The Gentleman's Magazine might be a proper repository for his *quære*.

‖§‖ Were we to state and to answer the arguments of *A Friend to the Poor*, on a speculative point in politics, we should be led into a discussion for which we cannot afford the requisite time and space.

‖¶‖ To W. D.—*Mental Improvement* is, we hope, in a progressive state: *Leisure Hours* have not yet fallen to our lot.

¶§¶ Mr. Williams's letter is unavoidably postponed.

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†‡† Mr. Preston's letter arrived too late for insertion in this No.

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‡†‡ In the last Review, p. 275. l. 13. from bottom, for δημουργος read δημιουργος. P. 278. l. 6. from bottom, for τυγχανει read τυγχανιν. P. 279. l. 3. for αγνωσω read αγιωσω. P. 319. l. 8. from bottom, 'and as an,' &c. dele 'as.'

☞ We understand that those readers of the Review, who live in the country, are sometimes mis-informed that the Appendix to each volume is not published at the end of the first month after the commencement of a new volume, with the number for that month, but in the middle of the ensuing month. We therefore think it necessary to say that an Appendix is invariably published on the 1st day of February, with the Review for January,—on the 1st of June, with the No. for May,—and on the 1st of October, with the Review for September: so that, if any of our readers do not receive the Appendix regularly at these times, the fault lies with the bookseller by whom they are supplied.

On Saturday, Jan. 2d, 1796, will be publiſhed,

No. I.

PRICE ONE SHILLING,

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Vol. III. The Knowledge and Practice of CHRISTIANITY made eaſy to the meaneſt Capacities. Short Obſervations for reading the Hiſtorical Books of the OLD TESTAMENT. Private and Family PRAYERS, with ſeaſonable Inſtructions. A FORM for CONSECRATING Churches, Chapels, Church-Yards, and Places of Burial.

Vol. IV. PAROCHIALIA; or, Inſtructions for the Clergy. Maxims of Piety and Chriſtianity. Form of Prayer for the Herring Fiſhery. Forms of Excommunication, and of receiving Penitents. Inſtructions for an Academick Youth. Catechetical Inſtructions.

BATH, printed by and for R. CRUTTWELL; and ſold by C. DILLY, Poultry, London; by all other Bookſellers, and the Newſmen.

TESTIMONIES

IN FAVOUR OF

Biſhop WILSON and his WORKS.

The late Rev. Dr. HORNE, *Biſhop of Norwich, in a Letter to the Rev. Dr.* WILSON, *Son to the Biſhop.*

"I Am charmed with the View the Books afford me of the good Man your Father, in his Dioceſe and in his Cloſet. The *Life*, the *Sacra Privata*, the *Maxims*, the *Parochialia*, &c. &c. exhibit altogether a complete and lovely Portrait of a Chriſtian Biſhop, going through all his Functions with conſummate prudence, fortitude, and piety—the Paſtor and Father of a happy Iſland for near three-ſcore Years! The caſe is really an *Unique* in Eccleſiaſtical Story. The Sermons are the affectionate Addreſſes of a Parent to his Children, deſcending to the minuteſt particulars, and adapted to all their Wants. In a delicate and faſtidious age, they may perhaps be ſlighted for their plainneſs and ſimplicity; but they were juſt what they ſhould be for the Place and for the People. To uſe an illuſtration of his own, he is the beſt Phyſician who cures the moſt Patients; and at the laſt great Day, may they who value themſelves on their Learning, their Elegance, and their Eloquence, give as good an account of their Stewardſhip as the Biſhop of Sodor and Man!"

The Rev. Dr. BEATTIE, *to the ſame.*

"—— Be pleaſed to accept of my beſt thanks for the great honour you have done me, and for the great good which you have given me the means of doing to myſelf. Your Father's Writings are an inexhauſtible as well as ineſtimable Treaſure of Virtue and Piety. When I think of what he has done, and what he has written, I am ſtruck with aſtoniſhment and rapture: for I cannot help conſidering him one of the greateſt and beſt characters that has done honour to human nature ſince the Apoſtolick Age."

Dr. SAMUEL JOHNSON, *to the ſame.*

"To think on Biſhop Wilſon with veneration, is only to agree with the whole Chriſtian World. I hope to look into his books with other purpoſes than thoſe of Criticiſm, and after their peruſal *not only to write, but to live better.*"

The Rev. Mr. TOOGOOD, *to the ſame.*

"I cannot deny myſelf the pleaſure of congratulating you on the publication of the Works of your late venerable Father. By communicating to the Chriſtian World ſuch an ineſtimable Treaſure, you have conſulted the beſt intereſts of thoſe into whoſe hands the Works may happily fall; and have, at the ſame time, conſecrated the Memory of a truly Apoſtolical Biſhop, whoſe conduct in publick and private life is above all Praiſe.

"The ſeveral Parts of this noble Publication are diſtinguiſhed by their peculiar Excellencies; but the Sermons are abſolutely inimitable. I am beyond meaſure charmed with the Wiſdom, the Simplicity, the pious Zeal, which breathe through the whole Collection. Every Diſcourſe may be conſidered as an earneſt and moſt benevolent Addreſs from the Father and Friend of his People, perfectly well adapted to their ſituation and capacities, and flowing directly from the Heart. The intrinſick Value of ſuch Diſcourſes cannot eaſily be eſtimated."

The Rev. Dr. PRIESTLEY.

"I have begun reading the good Biſhop's Sermons to my Family, and find them admirably adapted to the Purpoſe. They are ſo exceedingly plain and forcible, and yet ſo rational, that they ſeem the beſt calculated to do good of any I have yet ſeen."

"Such of the Biſhop's Tracts as have been before publiſhed are too well known to receive our Eulogium. The reſt need only be read to be equally approved. *They all uniformly breathe the angelical Spirit of* GLORY TO GOD IN THE HIGHEST, ON EARTH PEACE, GOOD-WILL TOWARDS MEN."

GENTLEMAN'S MAGAZINE.

"The Biſhop's Writings breathe ſuch a genuine ſpirit of unaffected piety and benevolence, as cannot fail to afford pleaſure in the peruſal; and, in his Life and Manners, he has left an example of Primitive and Apoſtolical ſimplicity that will rarely be equalled. In his Sermons he made it a rule to avoid all deep and unuſeful ſpeculations; all matters of controverſy that did not neceſſarily offer themſelves; and all juvenile affectations of fine language, wit, and learning."

MONTHLY REVIEW.

The *Critical Review*, after giving a very copious extract from the Life, with approbation, and ſpeaking very highly of his Treatiſe on the Sacrament, and his other Tracts, concludes thus:——

"The whole courſe of his Life affords a diſplay of the moſt genuine Charity and Benevolence. The various Publications now before us are inconteſtible proofs that he employed his time uſefully and piouſly in his cloſet. The Sermons are practical and familiar diſcourſes, preached from the heart, without vanity, and with a real deſign to do good; full of pious inſtructions, and ſuited to the humbleſt capacities."

An anonymous Critick ſays,

"I ſcruple not to ſay, that the Works of the Biſhop of Sodor and Man, wherever they are read, (and all Chriſtians ſhould read them) will do more eſſential good in private life, ſo far as intellectual happineſs, and that ſalvation in future which the Goſpel of Chriſt holds forth, are concerned, than half the writings of the preſent century. As ſuch, I would recommend them to all who believe there is a Life beyond this, and are convinced the attainment of that everlaſting Life is an object infinitely intereſting, beyond all that excite the paſſions, ſtimulate the exertions, or captivate the hearts of mankind. There is a ſincerity, an affectionate earneſtneſs, a heartfelt ſolicitude to do good, in the Biſhop's manner, with a happy fluency of thought, and an unaffected ſimplicity of language, which have not, I think, been exemplified ſince the times of Chriſt and his Apoſtles, and which are only extant (but, alas! ſeldom read) in the Evangeliſts and the Epiſtles."

The Author of an *Appeal to Common Reaſon and Candour*, in behalf of a Review of our Liturgy, publiſhed in 1750, having taken notice of the State of Chriſtianity in Scotland and Ireland, proceeds thus:——

"It will be unpardonable, after theſe, to mention the Iſle of Man in any other expreſſions than thoſe of gratitude and praiſe, delight and joy. Happy Iſland! May thy worthy Biſhop live, and continue, with the aſſiſtance of his God, to make Thee an example of Religion and Holineſs to all Iſlands and Kingdoms of the World! May his Works alſo live, and the good effects of them continue to a thouſand generations! When he has been long dead, he will yet ſpeak; and the happy influence of his Works will remain in this World, whilſt he is enjoying the glorious reward of them in another. May I live the Life, and die the Death, of that righteous Man; and may my latter End and State of Eternity be like his!"

THE COLUMBIAN MAGAZINE,

For JANUARY, 1789.

Embellished with the following COPPER-PLATES.

I. An accurate Engraving of the MUD-INGUANA, or SIREN, a remarkable Bipes found in South-Carolina.

II. A Drawing of the HORIZONTAL SPINNING-WHEEL.

To which is added,

III. A Cut, representing a MORAL AND PHYSICAL THERMOMETER.

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TO WHICH ARE PREFIXED,

Two METEOROLOGICAL TABLES; one for the month of DECEMBER, 1788; the other containing the MEAN RESULT of that year:——Also,

The PRICES CURRENT of MERCHANDIZE and PUBLIC SECURITIES.

PHILADELPHIA:

PRINTED FOR JAMES TRENCHARD.

Philadelphia Prices Current,
January 31, 1789.

Ashes, *pot*, per ton, 45*l*
Brandy, common, 3*l* 9*d* 4*l*
Bread per cwt. 13*s* 6*d* 35*s*

Beer.
- *American*, in bottles. per dozen, 8*s* 4*d*
- *Ditto*, per bbl. 30*s*

Boards.
- *Oak*. per m. feet. 67*s* 6*d* 85*s*
- *Merchantable pine*. 60*s* 70*s*
- *Sap*, 35*s* 42*s* 6*d*
- *Cedar*, 55*s* 65*s*

Chocolate, per lb. 1*s*

Flour.
- *Superfine*, per bbl. 34*s* 6*d*
- *Common*. 31*s* 32*s*
- *Bur middl* best, 25*s* 26*s*
- *Middlings*, 24*s*
- *Ship Stuff*, per cwt. 6*s* 8*s*

Flax per lb. 6*d* 7*d*
Flaxseed, per bushel, 4*s* 4*s* 6*d*
Ginseng, 3*s*
Gin. *Holland*, per gallon, 4*s* 6*d*
Ditto. per case, 25*s* 26*s*

Grain.
- *Wheat*, per bushel, 5*s* 6*d* 6*s*
- *Rye*, 4*s* 2*s* 6*d*
- *Oats*, 1*s* 4*d*
- *Indian Corn*, 2*s* 8*d* 2*s* 10*d*
- *Barley*. 4*s*
- best shelled, 20*s*
- *Buckwheat*, 2*s* 4*d* 2*s* 6*d*

Hams. per lb. 6½*d* 7*d*
Hogslard, 6*d* 7½*d*
Honey, 4*d* 5*d*
Hemp, 6*d*
Hogshead hoops, per m. 5*l* 6*l*
Hides. *raw*. per lb. 6½*d* 7*d*
Indigo. *French* per lb. 7*s* 6*d* 12*s*
Carolina, 4*s* 6*d* 6*s* 6*d*

Iron.
- *Castings*. per ton 22*s* 6*d* 30*s*
- *Bar*, 24*l*
- *Pig*, 7*l* 15*s* 8*l*
- *Sheet*. 62*l* 65*l*
- *Nail rods*, 33*l*

Meal. *Indian*. per bbl. 16*s* 17*s*
Molasses, per gallon, 19½*d*
Nails, 10, 12. *and* 20*d*. 7½*d* 9*d*
Parchment, per dozen, 30*s*
Porter. *American*, 11*s* 3*d*

Pork.
- *Burlington*, 75*s* 77*s* 6*d*
- *Lower county*. 70*s* 72*s* 6*d*
- *Carolina*, 60*s* 62*s* 6*d*

Peas, 6*s* 7*s* 6*d*
Rice, per cwt. 25*s*

Rum.
- *Jamaica*, per gall. 4*s* 4*s* 3*d*
- *Antigua*, 3*s* 9*d*
- *Windward*, 3*s* 4*d*
- *Barbadoes*, 3*s*
- *Country*, 2*s* 1*d*
- *Taffia*, 2*s*

Steel.
- *German*, per cwt. 67*s* 70*s*
- *English*, *blistered*. 80*s* 6*l*
- *American*, 40*s* 50*s*
- *Crowley's*, per fag. 4*l* 10*s*

Snake root, per lb. 1*s* 6*d* 2*s* 8*d*
Soap. *common*, 4*d* 6*d*
Castile, 10*d* 12*d*
Starch, 4*d* 5*d*

Sugar.
- *Lump*, per lb. 10½*d*
- *Loaf*. *single refined*, 11½*d*
- *Ditto*, *double ditto*, 17*d*
- *Havanah*. *white*, 8*d*
- *Ditto*. *brown*, 6*d* 8*d*
- *Muscovado*. per cwt. 45*s* 62*s* 6*d*

Salt.
- *Allum*. per bushel, 22*d* 2*s*
- *Liverpool*, 13*d* 15*d*
- *Cadiz*, 16*d* 19*d*
- *Lisbon*, 16*d* 21*d*

Tar.
- *N. Jersey*, 24 gall. 6*s* 7*s*
- *Carolina* 33 gall. 11*s* 3*d*
- *Turpentine*, 10*s* 12*s*

Tobacco. (cwt.)
- *J. R. new*, *best*, 42*s* 6*d* 45*s*
- *Inferior*, 28*s* 35*s*
- *Old*, 45*s* 50*s*
- *Rappahannock*, 28*s* 30*s*
- *Coloured Mar*. 40*s* 55*s*
- *Dark*, 28*s* 32*s* 6*d*
- *Long leaf*, 28*s* 30*s*
- *Eastern Shore*, 18*s* 30*s*
- *Carolina*, *new*, 28*s* 30*s*
- *Old*, 35*s*

Tea.
- *Hyson*, per lb. 14*s*
- *Souchong*, 8*s* 6*d* 10*s*
- *Congo*, 3*s* 9*d*. 5*s* 6*d*
- *Bohea*, 1*s* 10*d* 1*s* 10½*d*

Wine.
- *Mad*. per pipe, 40*l* 82*l* 10*s*
- *Lisbon*, 40*l*
- *Teneriffe*, 22*l* 10*s* 24*l*
- *Fayal*, per gal. 3*s* 1*d* 3*s* 3*d*
- *Port*. per pipe, 39*l* 40*l*
- *Ditto*, per gal. 5*s* 10*d* 8*s* 4*d*
- *Ditto*. per doz. bot. 30*s*
- *Claret*, 30*s* 45*s*
- *Sherry*, per gal. 6*s* 9*d* 7*s* 6*d*
- *Malaga*, 4*s*

Wax, *bees*, per lb. 2*s*

Current Prices of Public Securities, January 31, 1789.

New loan certificates. *accord. to int. due*,	4*s* 6*d* 5*s*	*Continental certificates, indented to* 1786,	4*s* 2*d*
Depreciation ju ded,		*Indents or Facilities*,	2*s* 6*d* 2*s* 8*d*
Ditto unjunded	5*s* 4*d*	*Paper money*,	115 *for* 100
Land-office certificates, on pr. and int.	4*s* 2*s* 3*d*	*Jersey money*,	£.133 6 8 *for* 100
State money of 1781,	£.116 0 8 *for* 100		

Course of Exchange.

Bills exchange, *London*,	90 *days*,	70	*Amsterdam*,	60 *days*. per guilder,	3*s* 1*d*
Ditto,	60 *days*,	72½		30 *days*,	3*s* 2*d*
Ditto,	30 *days*,	74	*France*,	60 *days*. per 5 livres	7*s* 3*d*
				30 *days*,	7*s* 4*d*

To CORRESPONDENTS, &c.

We are sorry *The Muse of America* proves too incorrect for publication.

Humilitas on vanity, and *The Retailer*, No. VII. in our next.

Plinio is under consideration.

P. Q. on the formation of an alphabet, is received; but we regret that the want of proper types, or characters, will prevent—for a season, at least—the insertion of his ingenious paper. We must observe, however, that the thought is not entirely new.

We acknowledge the receipt of various pieces in verse, which shall be severally noticed in due course.

☞ An *History of the late War* was intended to commence in the present number: but we are now under the necessity of deferring it till *March*, in order to insure the *timely* completion of the several plates with which it will be embellished: these, it is hoped, will prove interesting and important to our readers.

To this number is prefixed an engraved *View of the State-House* at Annapolis. The *Ground Plan* and *Description* of that costly building shall appear in our next—to which the *Binder* will annex the present view.

ADVERTISEMENT.

IF any gentleman should discover a snake apparently frozen to death, or in a torpid state, he would highly oblige one of our correspondents by communicating his discovery, and any observations he may make on the subject, to the Editor.

It will be necessary to try if the snake be sufficiently brittle to be broken, and to examine if the blood be congealed. If the reptile cannot be broken, then it may be cut in two, and, after attending to the fluidity of the blood, laid before a fire: exposing it thus to a gradual degree of heat will probably bring the severed parts to life.

An account is also requested of the particular situation in which the snake is discovered; whether in a close or open one, and whether the air had free access to the head.---It has generally been supposed that snakes cannot exist in a torpid state, unless they continue in the same air which they breathed when verging on torpidity.

If any other reptiles quadrupeds, or birds, happen to be found torpid, an account of the state of their blood is, also, earnestly desired. The blood of fish found frozen, may likewise be examined, before they are restored by being put into water.

Some interesting and useful observations depend upon a minute investigation of this subject.

TO THE PUBLIC.

A Change in the proprietorship of the COLUMBIAN MAGAZINE having commenced with the present year, the subscriber, who is now the sole proprietor, respectfully solicits the patronage of his Fellow-Americans, and others.

The great object of this MISCELLANY is to convey instruction and amusement to every class of its readers: and, while the proprietor relies upon the countenance of a discerning public, he trusts that his endeavours to obtain their approbation and support, will not prove unsatisfactory.

Anxious for the reputation of a work whose foundation he assisted to lay, and whose superstructure he now calls his own; no pains, no cost will be spared to render the COLUMBIAN MAGAZINE the most elegant, entertaining and valuable repository of the kind that has ever appeared in America——and the cheapest too.

than two copper-plates, occasionally coloured for the better illustration of particular subjects. The work will be printed on fine paper, with an handsome type, cast on purpose in Philadelphia ; and it is determined to publish it punctually on the first day of every succeeding month.

The utility of a comprehensive periodical miscellany, as it tends to diffuse knowledge among all ranks, and promote the best interests of society, has been acknowledged in every free government : but in America, the importance of such a work is extremely obvious.

The literati are therefore earnestly requested to favour this native production with their communications—and it is hoped the public in general will lend their names to the list of its supporters.

JAMES TRENCHARD.

THE

COLUMBIAN MAGAZINE,

For JANUARY, 1789.

ATURAL HISTORY being a branch of knowledge both pleasing and important, we hope the following translation of the great and good Linnæus's reflections on the study of that noble science, will prove acceptable to such of our readers as have not seen the work itself. We anticipate, with pleasure, the time when Americans of leisure shall turn their attention to this study, and explore the Natural History of our own country—which offers a field so capacious and interesting: and we shall always be happy to receive and insert the result of their enquiries and researches.

The discovery of a single vegetable, or the addition of a native dye, might give bread to thousands, and tend to promote the wealth and happiness of the United-States. The physician, the farmer, the merchant, the artificer, are all interested in the investigations of the naturalist: nor is religion unconcerned;--for such is the order, the harmony, and the design, such the astonishing variety of the works of creation, that man has only to be acquainted with them, to acknowledge and adore HIM who made and upholds the whole.

EFLECTIONS *on the Study of* NATURE: *Translated from the Latin of the celebrated* LINNÆUS.

" ——look through Nature, up to Nature's God."

THOSE who visit museums of natural productions, generally pass them over with a careless eye, and immediately take the liberty of giving a decided opinion upon them. The indefatigable collectors of these things sometimes have the fate of being reckoned monsters; many people wonder at their great but useless labours, and those who judge most tenderly, exclaim that such things serve to amuse persons of great leisure, but are of no real use to the community. It shall therefore be the business of this discourse, to examine the design and end of such collections,

The knowledge of one's self is the first step towards wisdom: this was the favourite precept of the wise Solon, and was written in letters of gold on the entrance of the temple of Diana.

A man surely cannot be said to have attained this self-knowledge, unless he has at least made himself acquainted with his origin, and the duties that are incumbent upon him.

Men and all animals increase and multiply in such a manner, that how-

ever few at first, their numbers are continually and gradually increasing. If we trace them backwards, from a greater to a less number, we at length arrive at one original pair. Now mankind, as well as all other creatures, being formed with such exquisite and wonderful skill, that human wisdom is utterly insufficient to imitate the most simple fibre, vein, or nerve, much less a finger, or other contriving or executive organ; it is perfectly evident, that all these things must originally have been made by an omnipotent and omniscient Being: for "he who formed the ear, shall he not hear? and he who made the eye, shall he not see?

Moreover, if we consider the *generation* of animals, we find that each produces an offspring after its own kind, as well as Plants, *Tæniæ*, and Corallines; that all are propagated by their branches, by buds, or by seeds; and that from each proceeds a germ of the same nature with its parent; so that all living things, plants, animals, and even mankind themselves, form one "chain of universal Being," from the beginning to the end of the world: in this sense truly may it be said, that there is nothing new under the sun.

If we next turn our thoughts to the place we inhabit, we find ourselves situated on a vast globe of land and water, which must necessarily owe its origin to the same Almighty Being: for it is altogether made up of wonders, and displays such a degree of contrivance and perfection, as mortals can neither describe nor comprehend. This globe may therefore be considered as a museum, furnished with the works of the Supreme Creator, disposed in three grand classes.

If, in the first place, we consider the FOSSIL KINGDOM we shall see the manner in which *water* deposits *clay*; how it is crystallized into *sand* near the shore *; how it wears down *shells* into *chalk*, dead *plants* into *vegetable mould*, and *metals* into *ochre*; from all which substances, according to the laws of nature, *stones* are formed: thus from sand originates *whetstone*, from mould *slate*, from chalk *flint*, from shells and earth *marble*, and from clay *talc*. In the cavities of these, are concrete beautiful pellucid *crystals*, which consisting of various sides opposed to each other, form a number of regular figures, which the most ingenious mathematician could scarcely have invented, and among which the glittering *gems* and brilliant *adamant* find a place.

Here the ponderous and shining *metals* are constantly forming; the ductile *gold*,† which eludes the violence of fire, and which can be extended in length and breadth to an almost incredible degree: here is found the wonderful *magnet*, of which no mortal has hitherto been able to learn the secret law of its mutual attraction with iron, or of its constant inclination towards the poles.

The various strata of stones often concealed in the highest summits of the Alps, are most ancient monuments, which place before our eyes the many changes of the old globe, and proclaim them to us, whilst all other things are silent on the subject.

The innumerable *petrifactions* of foreign animals, and of animals never seen by any mortal in our days, which often lie hidden among stones under the most lofty mountains, are the only remaining fragments of the ancient world, and reach far beyond the memory of any history whatever.

So large a quantity of these and other stone cover the globe, that no man has hitherto been able to break through them, and penetrate to the originally created earth.

In the second place, the VEGETA-

* This opinion of crystallization of sand from water, is disputed by the mineralogists of the present day.

† Lentum aurum.

BLE KINGDOM offers itself to our contemplation. Of all its productions, the first covering of the earth was furnished by the wintry *mosses*; of such variety in their forms, that they scarcely yield to herbs in number; and altho' extremely minute, yet of so admirable a structure, that they undoubtedly excel the stately palms of India. These mosses are dried up in summer, but in winter they revive, and in the early spring guard the roots of other plants from cold, as they afterwards do from the injury of summer suns.

For the gratification of our eyes, the earth is every where covered with verdure: there is no soil so rich or so barren, none so dry or so boggy, mountainous or marshy, exposed or shady, that some peculiar species of grass does not freely grow there, and fill up the interstices between other plants.

The widely disseminated *herbs* distinguished by the various forms of their leaves, flowers and fruits, decorate the earth in the most agreeable manner; not one of them but has its end and office assigned it by the Supreme Governor of the world: numerous as they are, the most of them differ from one another in taste and smell, form and colour, powers and properties; but especially in their flowers, which attract our notice by their elegant variety; and in them we discover the amours of plants, by which, although unattended with sensation, they develope their internal structure‡, and overspread the globe.

Trees, whose roots being raised high above the earth, constitute what we call a stem, weave their branches into an agreeable shade, to defend the ground from excessive heat and cold, and to shelter men from the injuries of the weather.

The third division contains the ANIMAL KINGDOM, where the various kinds of *worms* silently occupy the bottom of the sea; some of which, united in a manner by social compact, build *corals*; others lead a solitary life concealed in their horny shells, which are constructed with such beauty and variety in their figures, that no human wisdom can trace them out or comprehend their numbers.

Such numberless swarms of armed *insects* fly about the earth, that their species are more numerous than all that the ground produces. These in their infancy, are disguised in the form of *caterpillars*, in which state each has its proper plant assigned it, which it is appointed to inhabit and to feed upon, that the inordinate increase of any one may be prevented. Hence those vegetables whose luxuriant branches other animals cannot touch, either on account of prickles or height, or of a certain fæter or acrimony peculiarly obnoxious to their senses, are obliged to afford entertainment to a number of insects: so that while many plants are destined to feed a very few species of these animals, the nettle affords subsistance to several different kinds; and trees, being out of the reach of quadrupeds, frequently support innumerable legions.

The dumb *fishes* which glitter at the bottom of the waters, and which surpass birds in number, find an ample repast prepared for them in the numberless worms which have their dwelling there: and at the summons of Venus, they in their turns, annually approach the shore in duly divided troops.

The *winged inhabitants of the air*, which excel all other animals in the beauty of their forms, find in the loftiest trees a rich provision of insects for their sustenance: here they modulate their harmonious throats to the tender melody of love, preparatory to their producing new tribes for the ornament of future seasons. Most birds migrate every year from the northern shores to

‡ This refers to a theory of the Author's, the solidity of which may be doubted. Those who wish to see more of it, may consult the Amœnitates Academicæ, Vol. VI. Dissertation, 1.

countries nearer the sun; and having reached their appointed distance, return for the purpose of disseminating plants and fishes*.

Quadrupeds, which wander and sport in the fields, convert all other things to their use: by their joint endeavours they purge the earth from putrifying carcases; by their voracious appetites they fix bounds to the number of living creatures; they join in the contracts of love; and when urged by hunger, unite in pursuit of their prey. Thus, whilst all things are purified, all things are renewed, and an equilibrium is maintained; so that of all the species originally formed by the Deity, not one is destroyed.

While we turn our minds to the contemplation of the beauties which surround us, we are also permitted to employ them for our benefit; for to what use would the sun display its beams? for what end would the spacious world be furnished by the great and bountiful Author of nature, were there no rational beings capable of admiring, and turning it to their profit? The Creator has given us *eyes*, by the assistance of which we discern the works of creation. He has moreover, endowed us with the power of *tasting*, by which we perceive the parts entering into the composition of bodies; of *smelling*, that we may catch their subtile exhalations; of *hearing*, that we may receive the sound of bodies around us; and of *touching*, that we may examine their surfaces, and all for the purpose of our comprehending, in some measure, the wisdom of his works. The same instruments of sensation are bestowed on many other animals, who see, hear, smell, taste, and feel; but they want the faculty which is granted us, of combining these sensations, and from thence draw universal conclusions. When we subject the human body to the knife of the anatomist, in order to find in the structure of its internal organs, something which we do not observe in other animals, to account for this operation; we are obliged to own the vanity of our researches: we must therefore necessarily ascribe this prerogative to something altogether *immaterial*, which the Creator has given to man alone, and which we call *soul*.

If therefore the Maker of all things, who has done nothing without design, has furnished this earthly globe, like a museum, with the most admirable proofs of his wisdom and power; if, moreover, this splendid theatre would be adorned in vain without a spectator; and if he has placed in it man, the chief and most perfect of all his works, who is alone capable of duly considering the wonderful economy of the whole; it follows, that man is made for the purpose of studying the creator's works, that he may observe in them the evident marks of divine wisdom.

Thus we learn, not only from the opinions of moralists and divines, but also from the testimony of nature herself, that this world is destined to the celebration of the Creator's glory, and that man is placed in it to be the publisher and interpreter of the wisdom of God: and indeed he who does not make himself acquainted with God from the consideration of nature, will scarcely acquire knowledge of him from any other source; for "if we have no faith "in the things which are seen, how "should we believe those things which "are not seen."

The brute creation, although furnished with external senses, all resemble those animals which, wandering in the woods, are fattened with acorns, but never look upwards to the tree which affords them food, much less have they any idea of the beneficent Author of the tree and its fruit.

(To be continued.)

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* Pulpy fruits are in general the food of a variety of birds as well as of quadrupeds; but the seeds which are contained in these fruits are of such a nature that they almost always pass through the animal unhurt, and rather more fit for vegetation than before; thus they are transported to places far from their native soil. The spawn of fishes often shares the same fate.—See Linnæus's Oratio de Telluris incremento, amœn. Acad. Vol. II. published in English by the rev. mr. Bard, among his select dissertations from the Amœnitates Academicæ.

For the COLUMBIAN MAGAZINE.

An Essay on FASHION IN DRESS.

Mr. Editor,

TO protect the body from the inclemency of the weather was doubtless the cause of the invention of *dress*. After the fall of man, and his expulsion from paradise, the air, which had been congenial with his innocence and purity, underwent a change suitable to his degeneracy and depravity. The sky,—which before this fatal epocha, had exhibited a scene at once uniform and delightful, the emblem of tranquility, and the object of contemplation,—was now frequently obscured by clouds, and became an immense theatre; where mist and vapour, hail, tempests, lightning and thunder were the chief personages of the drama, and impressed on the mind of man the tragical consequences of disobedience and ambition. How great must have been his surprise at this awful change! how deep his distress! how horrible his apprehensions of still greater danger! Torn by the violence of the storm from the partner of his innocence and guilt, his joys and afflictions, it is probable, that he fled for refuge to some tree, whose thick foliage afforded him a momentary relief; but its branches, overloaded with rain, soon poured a collected torrent on his unprotected head. With trembling precipiration he sought the jutting rock, whose repercussive roar terrified him with the apprehensions of still greater danger: The cave alone remained unexplored; but the cave was occupied by the wolf, the tyger, the panther and the lion, formerly the objects of his amusement, but now the scourges of his guilt. Oppressed with bodily and mental sufferings, he throws himself on the ground, imploring the Author of nature mercifully to deprive him of that existence, which was now become an intolerable burden. At length the winds and thunder are hushed; the rain ceases, and the sky resumes its wonted splendor. Although justly the object of divine anger, he feels his strength of mind return; and now, anxious alone for his unhappy help-mate, he makes the woods to echo with the name of Eve;—but no reply is heard. With difficulty he finds the spot, from which he had been separated from her: There he sees her extended, and apparently lifeless. Guided by nature, more than reason, he conveys her to a drier spot, exposes her to the rays of the sun, wrings the rain from her flowing tresses, and communicating the warmth of his bosom to hers, restores her to sensation. How endearing their looks! how tender their congratulations! how ardent their gratitude to their offended, but placable Creator!

This dreadful, but useful warning, necessarily suggested to the Father of mankind the expediency of a retreat, where, with his sole companion, he might be protected from the storm, and the beast of prey, the lightning, and the thunder. The seeds of art were sown in his breast: Necessity now rendered them productive and useful: The cottage was raised, sufficient for shelter and security; and was decorated with a variety of shrubs, planted by the hand of Eve, and bearing the most odoriferous flowers. In this rude essay of Adam, let the architect recognize the origin of his art, whilst the rich and luxurious acknowledge, that the most gorgeous palace is a proof of the vanity of the human mind, superadded to the weakness of our corporeal faculties.

Thus happily secured from immediate danger, our first parents indulged themselves in many innocent pleasures; for man was not then altogether corrupted. So bountiful was the earth, that she required but little cultivation: her fruits, almost spontaneously yielded, were sufficient for the gratification of the appetite; and the hands of Adam were never stained with blood: But sin, by degrees, diminished their strength. When they repaired to the scene of their morning toil they found

the air damp and chilling, the rays of the noon-tide sun powerful and even oppressive, and the dew of the evening raw and unwholesome. Some security from the weather, more than the cottage or grove supplied, which might screen them in their walks and at their labours, was found necessary: the idea of clothing was suggested; and necessity was not slow in providing the materials: the fibres of leaves served to connect other leaves, which, happily disposed by the hand of Eve, afforded sufficient raiment for herself and her husband.—Simplicity exulted at that display of fancy, at which modern refinement would smile.

Before the deluge, the progress of fashion must have been slow and irregular; as a young lady, it may be well presumed, seldom thought of making conquests, till she had at least completed her first century. It is possible, that taste was displayed by the antediluvian fair in the choice of such skins, or feathers, as suited their complexions, or indicated that turn of mind, which they either possessed, or affected to possess. The plumage of the dove ornamented the bosom of the tender and faithful shepherdess, whilst the whiteness of the ermine designated the purity of her sentiments: the coquette flaunted in the spotted skin of the leopard, and exhibited on her head the varying lustre of the peacock's tail: the feathers of the ostrich added dignity to the reserved beauty; the younger misses designated approaching maturity by the delicate rose-bud; and those, who were further advanced in years, announced the full possession of their charms by the union of the full-blown rose with the ever-green myrtle.—In short, although luxury was unknown, *fashion* was not idle; and the wish to please by external ornament existed in the human heart, long before Egypt had wrought her fine linens, the daughters of Israel exerted their skill in needle-work, or the gold of Ophir had fascinated a degenerate and corrupted world.

The Pentateuch, or five first books of the old testament, attributed to Moses, contain the clearest accounts of antiquity, which have reached our times, or perhaps were ever recorded. With respect to personal ornaments, we find in Genesis, that ear-rings, and bracelets were presented to Rebecca by the servants of the patriarch Abraham in behalf of Isaac. Jewels of gold and silver were very common in the days of Moses; and it may be presumed, that even in the wilderness, the precious spoils of the Egyptians constituted a part of the dress of the wandering Israelites. It is acknowledged, that, overcome by the eloquence of their leaders, they devoted their most valuable effects to religious purposes; but we may rationally conclude, that this laudable sacrifice by no means precluded the use of other personal ornaments. This species of luxury, although frequently censured, was certainly less reprehensible than the sin of Micah,—who, abounding in the precious metals, replenished his house with gods, and, in order to maintain the dignity of the family, invested one of his sons with the priesthood.

During the Jewish republic, whilst the people were poor, and consequently, refined luxury but little known, the advances of *fashion in dress* must have been slow and irregular. In the days of Saul we do not read of any extraordinary improvements in ornamental apparel; but we may reasonably infer from the speech which Samuel made to the people, when they demanded a king, that, among other enormities which the regal authority would necessarily introduce, the luxury of dress would not be neglected: but the prophet, it may be presumed, was silent in this particular, from a conviction that magnificence in apparel was trifling, compared with the evils resulting from arbitrary power. His successor, ever mindful of the sheepcote, from which he had been advanced to the throne, seems to have preserved a laudable simplicity; but from one of his poems, or psalms, wherein he celebrates the glories of the king's daughter, it must be inferred that his people were not strangers to the splendour of dress. A scriptural critic will doubtless tell us, that the passage to which I allude must be taken in an allegorical sense:

to this I reply, that the effusions of fancy, whether allegories, parables, metaphors, tropes or similes, must be founded in nature, or custom--- they cannot otherwise please or instruct, because they will not be understood. Had we no other proof of the art of tillage being known in Judea in the days of Augustus Cesar, the parable of the sower will alone evince its existence. It must therefore be allowed, that the artists of Israel, during the reign of David, were capable of manufacturing rich and elegant clothing for the princes of their tribes, who, like the grandees of most nations, attracted the respect of their inferiors as well from magnificence of apparel, as from strength of body, or elevation of mind.

I believe it will be granted, that the wealth and consequence acquired by the exercise of any particular art, will, in a civilized nation, excite men of ingenuity and enterprize to a display of faculties and exertion of talents, of which themselves were before probably unconscious. When I call to mind the temple of Belus, the tomb of Ninus, and the gardens of Semiramis, I am led to conclude that the Assyrians and Babylonians, who executed those prodigies of art, must have applied themselves, with assiduity and success, to works of less labour and magnificence, but of equal elegance and refinement. Their most costly silks were doubtless rendered more valuable by the admixture of gold, and, after being disposed by the hand of *fashion*, added grace to beauty, lustre to majesty, and dignity to religion. The priesthood in ancient times were as well acquainted with the nature of the human heart, as those, who in our days preach a purer doctrine; they knew, that men were more easily governed by their senses, than their reason; and, therefore, dazzled their eyes with magnificence and splendour; whilst they over-awed their minds with portentous fables, and inexplicable mysteries.

The most uncultivated tribes of American Indians, are as susceptible of pride and pleasure, arising from personal embellishments, as the most polished courtier at St James's or Versailles. Before Cooke discovered Otaheite, the natives of that island were splendid in their apparel, and could boast their *fashions in dress*, which, however at first disgusting to an European, were, doubtless in their opinion, elegant and sumptuous. Even the philosophic Banks did not behold the royal Oberea with indifference; but with the gallantry of a second Anthony paid homage to the taste and beauties of another Cleopatra.

I shall shortly endeavour, mr. Editor more minutely to trace the progress of *fashions in dress* through the earlier ages, and contrast them with those modes which at present prevail in the most populous cities, and polished courts of Europe: but you will confess, that the investigation will require some time and labour. The indexes of the works of antiquarians must be consulted with the greatest attention, and the copper-plate prints of the lady's magazine, that valuable repository of taste, inspected with a critical eye. Every man of moderate capacity, assisted by books, or an able preceptor, may make himself master of any particular science; but I fear, that after all my researches and labour, I shall be able to give your readers but a very inadequate history of *fashion*,

——————Which, like sick men's dreams,
Varies all shapes, and mixes all extremes.

I am, sir,

Your humble servant,

PHILOCOSMOS.

ON SOCIETY.

Ætas parentum pejor avis, tulit
Nos nequiores, mox daturos
Progeniem vitiosiorem. *Hor.*

MAN has been defined by some a risible, by others a reasonable creature; but the epithet of sociable belongs to him as properly as any other. As soon as men began to unite more closely, and dwell together in societies, reason, or a kind of instinct, taught them, that there was some regard due from one to the other; which regard was diversified by each society according to its particular genius.

The Asiatics,—who shared in a lively imagination, a tender heart, and a supple mind, were almost guilty of excess in the expressions of their civilities. The humble manner in which Abraham and Lot received the angels, whom they took for men; the submission with which Abigail addressed herself to David, to appease his wrath; and many other instances, are strong examples of this eastern complaisance, —which was carried to the greatest height by the Assyrians, Medes and Persians, who were bred up in the strictest principles of passive obedience, and were wont to worship absolute power in its worst of shapes.

The Europeans, of a graver and more phlegmatic disposition, a greater soul, and a temper not easily to be subdued or controled, expressed their friendship, esteem, or respect, in a plainer or less servile manner. Accordingly we find that the Greeks, accustomed to that equality whereby free and popular states are distinguished,—despised and contemned, as the meanest prostitution, that supine grovelling homage exacted from them by those kings of Persia, in whose service they had courageously exposed their lives: though, at the same time, they were the politest people of the then known world, and as remarkable for their courteousness and good-breeding, as for their skill in all the arts, both of war and peace.

Notwithstanding the manners of the inhabitants of Italy had been very much softened, by the mixture of several Greek colonies; yet, they appear to have been downright honest people, rather than fine gentlemen.

Rome at first, was only a confused heap of uncivilized nations. Addicted to rural concerns, and engaged in perpetual wars, they long retained their genuine rusticity: the constitution of their government first polished them;—the common people became submissive and respectful, while ambition taught those in higher stations affability.

At length, towards the end of their commonwealth and under their first emperors, plenty, luxury, letters,—but especially their intercourse with the Greeks, who after the loss of liberty, had improved their manners—made the Romans excel all other nations in politeness, as well as power; so that they were proud of nothing so much as what they called Roman urbanity. This, in time, altered insensibly for the worse, and, at the dismembering of the empire, degenerated into fulsome compliments, and nauseous adulation.

Hence we may conclude, that it has fared with politeness as with most other things: they rise from small beginnings, and by slow degrees; are next carried as far as they can go; but, having attained the summit of their maturity, suddenly experience a rapid decay. They may be compared to the stone of Sysiphus, which being rolled up hill with uncommon pains, no sooner reaches the top, than back it tumbles with irresistible force.

Riches and power, virtue and learning, honour and morality; nay, religion itself, have had the same fate, among all nations, and in all ages: Rome, Carthage, Athens, and Sparta, —the two former competitors for the empire of the world, the latter for that of Greece,—are striking proofs of what is here asserted.

Rome, till the end of the second Punic war, struggled hard with her neighbours, for a smaller territory than what is, at present, possessed by the pope. Then she was valiant, ho-

nest and laborious. She afterwards waged war with mighty kingdoms, and became formidable to the greatest princes: then she grew learned, knowing, polite, and magnificent. She at last arrived to such an height of wealth and power as to overcome all that withstood her, establish her dominion without controul, and reign mistress of the world: Then she became covetous and dishonest, luxurious and effeminate,—and fell in her corruption a victim to the talents, the enterprize and the ambition of one of her own citizens. Similar has been the fate of even the best governments: but tho' all things are prone to change and decay, it is a duty we owe to God —and our country demands it—to ward off as long as may be that depravity of mind, and that corruption of manners which the experience of all ages assures us will sooner or later overtake nations----and plunge them from power and enjoyment, into misery and contempt—from the polish of civilization to the barbarism of the savage state. It is enough to submit to the abject change when it becomes inevitable: 'twere inexcusable to invite it sooner—let Americans remember this.

But, lest the picture I have drawn may seem too serious to some, I shall conclude with a story, which may serve to enliven a little what otherwise might appear to be gloomy.

"About a century ago, a venerable old man, who had passed all the offices in one of the chief towns in Holland, with honor and applause, and had gained great riches without reproach, had some thoughts of returning to his country seat. In order to take leave of his friends and acquaintance in an handsome manner, he invited them, young and old, of both sexes (and they were people of the best fashion in the place) to an entertainment at his own house. They met together with great expectations; but, to their no small surprize, saw a long table, hardly covered with a scanty blue cloth, on which were alternately placed platters full of butter-milk, and sour-crout, heaps of pickled herrings, and huge cheeses: The rest of the cheer was made up with butter and *roggen-brod:* or rye-bread; and cans of small-beer were at hand for those that had a mind to drink; trenchers served instead of plates, and not a single servant attended. The company secretly cursed the old fellow's humour, but out of respect to his great age, and still greater merit, bridled their resentment, and affected to be content with their homely fare.

The old gentleman seeing the joke take, was unwilling to carry it too far, and soon shifted the scene. Two *boorin-maids*, in cleanly country garbs, appeared at their master's call, with a second course: the blue cloth was exchanged for white linen; the platters and trenchers were transformed into pewter; the mean food into good salt beef and boiled fish; the brown into household bread; and the small-beer into wine. The guests grew better pleased, and the master of the feast became more earnest in his invitations. After he had given them time to eat of this second course, as a signal he made, the third was served up by a *maitre d' hotel* in form, followed by half a dozen powdered lackies, in gaudy liveries. The most beautiful flowered damask was spread over the table; the richest plate and most curious china adorned the side-board, whilst a profusion of soups, olios, tame and wild-fowl, ragouts, *blancs mangers*---in a word, all that the art of a modern French cook could produce, ranged in a well-disposed judicious order, seemed to court the taste and renew the appetite of the whole company. Add to this, strong bodied chateau margou, generous burgundy, sparkling champaign,--in short a choice of the best wines that commerce could procure: and, that nothing might be wanting that could delight the senses, by the time a sumptuous desert was brought in, a melodious concert, made up of an agreeable variety of instruments, was heard in the next room. Healths went round, mirth increased, and the old man seeing that nothing but his departure, and that of the gravest of the company, was waited for to give a loose to joy and pleasure, arose and made the following discourse.——

'Ladies and gentlemen, I heartily 'thank you for this favour: it is time 'for one of my age to withdraw; 'but I hope those that are disposed for 'dancing will accept of a ball, which 'I have ordered to be prepared for 'you. Before the fiddles strike up, 'give me leave to make a short reflec-'tion upon this entertainment, which 'otherwise would appear whimsical, 'or the effect of humour only: it may 'serve to give you an idea of our *Com-'mon-Wealth*. By living after that pe-'nurious manner exhibited in the *first* 'course, our ancestors raised their *in-'fant state*, and acquired liberty, 'wealth, and power. These were pre-'served by our fathers, who lived in 'that handsome but plain way you 'have seen in the second course. But 'if an old man may be permitted, be-'fore he leaves you whom he dearly 'loves, to speak his thoughts freely, 'I am indeed afraid that that extra-'vagant plenty you have observed in 'the *last* course, will, if persisted in, 'deprive us of those advantages which 'our ancestors earned by the sweat of 'their brows, and which our fathers 'by their industry and good manage-'ment, have transmitted to us.--Young 'people! I advise you to be merry this 'evening; but think seriously tomor-'row upon what I have been telling 'you to day.—Good night!'

An ACCOUNT *and* DESCRIPTION *of the* MUD-INGUANA, *or* SIREN *of* South-Carolina.

[*With a Plate exhibiting two specimens of the Animal.*]

THE amphibious bipes represented by the engraving annexed, was first discovered in South-Carolina upwards of twenty years ago, by doctor Garden of Charleston;* who sent some of the same species, in spirits, to John Ellis, esquire, F. R. S. in England. The singular figure of this animal excited the curiosity of European naturalists, who, after the closest examination, agreed it was a non-descript of a very extraordinary kind. It was not, however, without much hesitation, they formed this opinion; for the resemblance which the pennated opercula bore to those of the larva or aquatic state of the english lacerta, called eft, or water-newt, inclined even Linnæus himself, for a while, to think it the larva state of some large kind of lizard. In England they called to mind the wonderful changes in their lizards, and those no less remarkable in frogs; and that efts, in their aquatic state, were provided with similar opercula, or coverings to their gills; which also serve them as fins to swim with during this state, but which they lose, as well as the tail fin, when they become land animals. Hence it was thought necessary to examine the lacertas in the British museum, to see whether any of the young ones had only two feet: but after going through many kinds, no such instance was found; for there were four feet perfectly formed, in even those that were but just coming out of the egg.

During this state of incertainty, Mr Ellis forwarded to doctor Linnæus, o Upsal, at doctor Garden's request, an account of the largest specimen, together with one of the smaller, preserved in spirits, and desired his opinion. Linnæus returned an answer in January, 1766, which, as it is curious, we transcribe here at length.

'I received doctor Garden's very 'rare two-footed animal with gills and 'lungs. The animal is probably the 'larva of some kind of lacerta, which 'I very much desire he will particu-'larly enquire into. If it does not un-'dergo a change, it belongs to the or-'der of *Nantes*, which have both lungs 'and gills; and if so, it must be a new 'and very distinct genus, and should 'most properly have the name of *Si-'ren*. I cannot possibly describe to 'you how much this two-footed ani-'mal has exercised my thoughts: if 'it is a larva he will no doubt find some

* See Philos. Trans. vol. LVI. p. 189.

'of them with four feet. It is not 'an easy matter to reconcile it to the 'larva of the lizard tribe, its fingers 'being furnished with claws; all the 'larvas of lizards that I know are 'without them.--- (*Digitis muticis*) 'Then also the branchiæ, or gills, are 'not to be met with in the aquatic 'salamanders, which are probably the 'larvas of lizards. Further, the croak-'ing noise or sound it makes, does not 'agree with the larvas of those ani-'mals; nor does the situation of the 'anus: so that there is no creature 'I ever saw, that I longed so much 'to comprehend as this.'

'P. S. In a letter lately received 'from doctor Garden, he mentions 'one remarkable property of this ani-'mal; which is, that his servant en-'deavouring to kill one of them by 'dashing it against the stones, it broke 'into three or four pieces. He further 'says, that he has had an opportunity 'of seeing many of them lately of a 'much larger size, and that he never 'saw one with more than two feet; so 'that he is fully convinced that it is 'quite a new genus of the animal 'kingdom.'

The mud-inguana, or siren, is found in swampy and muddy places, by the side of pools, under the trunks of old trees that hang over the water: it is often though improperly called in South-Carolina, the pond-worm.

The less one marked B in the plate, measured about nine inches, and appeared to be a very young state of the animal, as the fin of the tail, and the opercula or coverings of the gills were but little extended towards their full size. These opercula consist each of three indented lobes hiding the gills from view, and are placed just above the two feet: the feet appear like little arms and hands, each furnished with four fingers and every finger with a claw.

In the specimen A, which was thirty one inches long, the head is somewhat like that of an eel, but more compressed: the eyes are small, and placed where those of the eel are;—in this they are hardly visible. This smallness of the eye best suits an animal who lives so much in mud. The nostrils are very plainly to be distinguished: these, with the gills, and the remarkable length of the lungs, shew it to be a true amphibious animal. The mouth is small in proportion to the length of the body, but its palate, and the inside of the lower jaw [fig. C] are well provided with many rows of pointed teeth: with this provision of nature, added to the sharp exterior bony edges of both the upper and under jaws, the animal seems capable of biting and grinding the hardest kind of food. The skin, which is black, and full of small scales, resembles shagreen: these scales are of various sizes and shapes, according to their situation; but all appear sunk into its gelatinous surface: those along the back and belly are of an oblong oval form, and closely set together; in the other parts, they are round, and more distinct. Both the sides are mottled with small white spots and have two distinct lines, composed of small white streaks, continued along from the feet to the tail. The fin of the tail has no rays, and is no more than an adipose membrane, like that of the eel. The opercula, or coverings to the gills, are doubly pennated; and under these coverings are the openings to the gills, three on each side, agreeably to the number of the opercula.

It is highly probable that the mud-inguana is natural to Georgia and the Floridas.--- We should be glad to receive any additional particulars respecting it.

THE INFLUENCE OF RICHES.

BY PETER PENNYLESS.

——Et amor sceleratus habendi.

'IF I had just this,' said I, as I was reading an account in the news paper of a gentleman who had married an agreeable young lady with a fortune of ten thousand pounds;—'if I had just this, I would journey

cheerfully thro' life :—a complaint should not be uttered from my mouth, and I would endeavour to prevent those of other people :—the hungry should not go unsatisfied from my door;—nor should the naked curse me while he sat shivering over a few dying embers, and the rude storm rattled on his ragged roof. I would,' said I, 'be a father to the fatherless, a husband to the widow: and I would,' —but here a sympathetic tear stopped further utterance; it had no power over the flowings of my heart—I thought I would make all around me happy.

The wish was a kind of prophetic one; Providence intended to put my virtue to the trial. I had just finished the paragraph, and thrice wiped my eyes with a white cambric handkerchief;——it was from thee, Almira, I received it, wet with the crystal drops which had fallen for the death of an indulgent father—they have never yet been washed from it,—nor shall they ever mix with the stream while I possess it, but I will add a few more to them, as often as all-powerful nature shall call them from my eyes :—I had just finished the paragraph—when the post-man brought me a letter, informing me, that my brother Jacob, who had emigrated to the East-Indies, in order to get into some other family, had died, and left me ten thousand pounds.

When I had finished the letter, I lifted up my white cambric handkerchief, which I had laid on the table—I lifted it—and put it into my pocket.

When I read an account of the death of a brother,—when I had taken up my white cambric handkerchief, had I not informed the reader what I did with it, he would naturally have concluded, that I used it either to wipe a tributary, or at least a fashionable tear from my cheek—I did neither.

There is nothing more difficult than to give a reason for every thing that happens—I think, however, that I can give *two* for this :—

For there are two circumstances which render the mind less susceptible of the natural feelings upon the death of any relation—

The first is, when we hardly knew, or never were intimate with the deceased: and the second is, when he leaves any thing behind him valuable enough to occupy the mind so much, as to divert the melancholy feelings which would otherwise arise on the occasion.

Now, both these circumstances concurred in the present case Jacob had begun his peregrination in the seventeenth year of his age, while I was yet a child: our acquaintance had hardly begun; nor was it carried on by partaking of mutual diversions, or sharing in mutual hopes and fears. Thus he was unto me as an alien, and not as a brother; and, moreover, he had left me as much as would have made many an one rejoice at the death of a brother who had been brought up with him as such.

I had asked two or three of my neighbours to sup with me; but I now wished I had not done it, on account of the expense—Tell me, nature! what is it,—for I could never yet discover it—tell me, what is it that contracts the heart on the acquisition of wealth?

'I am now no more of the family of Pennyless,' said I;—'I am a gentleman, and I will live as a gentleman:'—so I leaned my head backwards on the chair, and began to plan out a scheme for my future conduct in life. After I had turned it this way, and that way, and, in short, every way that I could think of,—it would not do.

'I will go to bed', said I; 'a comfortable nap will refresh my mind, and this will make it do in the morning'.—So I laid me down, and turned me to this side, and to that side, and put myself into this and that posture,—but I could not get the nap I wanted; nor would the scheme go out of my head.

It was a maxim among the stoic philosophers, and adopted by many people as a dernier resource,—to bear courageously up against the tide of misfortunes: while my blood and

spirits rushed warmer into my veins, than at this present moment when they can hardly crawl along. I was fond of this method; but I generally found it was spending my strength in vain. I have therefore long since adopted a quite different one, which is,—to lay myself supinely on the surface of the stream, and glide with the current: when a rock or precipice seems to fall in my way, I paddle myself to one side of it with a leg, or an arm, and always give myself as little trouble on the occasion as possible.

I took this method in the present case, and since the scheme would not go out of my head, resolved to let it continue there, as long as it pleased: so I prosecuted it all night, and, about nine o'clock in the morning, had fixed on a plan. I had no sooner fixed upon it than I got out of bed, wrote it down upon a piece of paper, with my annual income upon one column, and my expence upon the other;—when, to my great mortification, I found that the expense, as I had planned it, would be exactly seven pounds thirteen shillings and six-pence halfpenny above my income.

I then ran over all the other plans which I had thought of during the night: there were none of them that would answer:—and this could not be executed upon one single farthing less than I had estimated it at.

——'Had I just this seven pounds thirteen shillings and sixpence halfpenny,' said I, 'it would make me completely happy—'

So I began to revolve in my mind, with the utmost earnestness how I should obtain it. 'I will conceal,' said I, 'my having gotten the money for a year; it will then amount to ten thousand five hundred pounds,—which will easily bring matters to bear.'—On further reflection, this would not do; I had told the story the night before,—and it was flying among all the neighbours.

While I was in this dilemma, the maid came to tell me, that old Peter was at the door. Now Peter, on account of his name, was a weekly pensioner, on whom I had long been accustomed to bestow a penny every saturday morning: The girl had told him of my good fortune—and he, no doubt, had reckoned something upon it—'Bid him go about his business,' said I, in an angry tone:—but my heart smote me as I said it; and I remembered the promises I had made when I received the letter. 'Just heaven!—is it thus,' said I, 'that we sport with our vows?—I will go this moment and give him six-pence at least.'

——So I put my hand into my pocket, and walked hastily to the door—'Peter!' said avarice, while I was going out at it, and had gotten the sixpence ready,—'you are at this moment short of your reckoning seven pounds thirteen shillings and sixpence halfpenny, and yet you are going, like a fool, to give away your money'—

At this very instant, old Peter bowed to me, with a most piteous countenance; the look, methought, seemed to cry aloud—'this is what I did not expect!' I stood in the door, agitated between two violent passions---Charity bade me reach out my hand, and give it--avarice contradicted it;—so I would give it,—and I would not give it: Peter saw my distress, and modestly walked out, and shut the street-door behind him.

He was no sooner gone, than I cursed him for departing: I was convinced that I would have given it to him if he had staid; and laid all the blame upon his precipitate retreat—which ought naturally to have fallen on the badness of my own heart.

I put up the sixpence, walked into the room again, and sat down to breakfast.—There were two things that embarrassed me so much, that I could not eat; the first was the want of the seven pounds thirteen shillings and sixpence halfpenny,—and the second was the figure of old Peter, which presented itself to my imagination, sitting shivering in his hovel, thro' every cranny of which the beak wind was whistling, and disturbing his hoary locks,--while he was every now and then casting a melancholy look around him, in quest of something to re-kin-

dle the poor remains of a fire just expiring--and, with a dispairing eye, exploring every corner for a scanty crust, or any thing to allay his craving appetite.

Methought, when he had in this manner ruminaged the whole hovel, and could find nothing either to mitigate his cold or hunger, that he sat down upon his chair, leaned his head upon his hand, turned up his eyes to heaven, and gave a sigh:—the sigh, I thought, was accompanied with a curse upon me, for having denied his usual boon:—'what will become of him?' said I;—'he must expire before morn-'day'—so I took out the six-pence, and looking at it——'may no person 'ever suffer so much for the want of 'you as he just now does; nor ever 'feel so sharp a pang for possessing 'you as I do,' said I.————

'Perhaps, all that has now passed 'before me may be an illusion,' said I; 'and he may, at this instant, be 'begging at the corner of a street, 'from somebody as hard-hearted as 'myself——I will go immediately 'and find him out: and if I do not 'find him, I will find plenty of others 'to bestow something upon, who may 'be in as much want.'——So I put eleven shillings and nine-pence into my pocket, and went out, resolved to bestow every farthing of it in charity, before I should return.

I had gotten but a little way from my own door, when I saw a poor man at a distance, standing in a suppliant posture: my niggard heart revolted against all the resolutions I had made:——'it is he,' said I—'and I must give 'away my money, altho' I have already seven pounds fifteen shillings and 'six-pence half-penny per annum too 'little.' When I approached the man, and found it was not him, my heart rejoiced within me as I passed by.

In going through several parts of the town, I met a variety of objects of charity; but I industriously kept from looking at any of them, lest pity should overcome avarice, and force a passage into my heart. While I shunned every other beggar, I would have persuaded myself that I wanted to meet Peter; but it was only a pretence—for I got home with every farthing of the money in my pocket which I had carried out.

A semblance of virtue will often stifle the monitor within us. I had done my duty, I thought, with respect to Peter; and if I had not given him the money at first, nor found him out now, it was not my fault; so I sat down to dinner, and began to consider how I could get the seven pounds thirteen shillings and six pence half-penny per annum, that I wanted.

On sunday, at church, my head was full of it—it was full of it all the week, till friday evening, when I came home and found another letter upon my table, informing me, that my brother's effects had turned to much better account than was expected; and that instead of *ten*, I should get at least *twenty* thousand pounds——'I will double the plan I had formed before,' said I---'and then I shall appear somebody,---but in order to do this, I want fifteen pounds seven shillings and a penny:——if I had just this, I should undoubtedly be happy.'

There are no limits to avarice——I now spent as uneasy a night, contriving how to acquire this fifteen pounds odd, as I had done before on account of the half of it. I rose about eight o'clock in the morning, and, taking hold of the right knee of my breeches in order to put them on, all the money in the pocket of them fell on the floor. On gathering it up, and counting it, I found exactly the eleven shillings and ninepence——'I never carried money so long before' said I, 'without parting with some of it'---

O conscience!——conscience! however we may attempt to stifle thee, thou art a faithful monitor, and wilt be perpetually endeavouring to rouse us from the indulgence of our crimes. When I saw the money untouched, thou toldest me I had done amiss---and I listened to what thou toldest me.

'When I had but little to spare,' said I, 'I always gave a part of that little; and never, till I became possessed of much, did I carry a sum so long undiminished in my pocket;——

but I will now attone for my fault'. While I said this, I felt benevolence rushing warm into my heart. There is nothing better than to seize a lucky moment: now Peter at this very moment hit the door with the knocker; and, as it was about the usual time of his coming, the sound of the knocker hit my heart ——

——'You' said I, looking at the eleven and ninepence in my hand—'you shall pay the forfeit of my crimes---long have you shut out every social feeling from my heart; but you shall never have it in your power to do so again.'—So I sent the old man away rejoicing.

For the COLUMBIAN MAGAZINE.

A DREAM.

——"Mutato nomine, de te
Fabula narratur".

Horace.

If the cap fits you, take it.

Anon:

A Few evenings ago, as I was musing on the parties so prevalent in most governments, and comparing them in my mind to that extraordinary production of nature, the polypus, I could not help thinking there was same propriety in the comparison. I had often seen the flaming partizan turned inside out, and yet remain, like the polypus, as vivacious and busy as before. Tracing the similitude further, I leaned back in my chair, and fell asleep, under the impression of these reflections, and found them renewed and exemplified in a dream.—

The earth appeared to be generally covered with waters—a "sea without shore". The transition to a scene so new and terrible excited some alarm:—but my fears soon yielded to astonishment at the metamorphosis which followed. Great part of the human race were transformed into the finny brood, and sported on the liquid element in a variety of gambols, according to their instinctive propensities. Strange as this revolution appeared, it did not, however, seem to affect those who escaped the metamorphosis,—and who, on the contrary, pursued their various avocations and amusements, as if nothing had happened. I now felt endued with the power of traversing with my eye the hidden recesses of the deep; and gave a scope to my inclination, prompted by curiosity and a thirst after knowledge, to explore the various classes of these new supporters of the Chinese doctrine of transformation.

As I could not discover either the sea-snake or the kraaken, the whale appeared to be the largest inhabitant of the waters: He moved along in all the majesty of strength. I considered him as the ruler of the ocean; and was contemplating the advantages he seemed to possess, in his relative station over those of the great among the human race—who are often constrained to tread a path of thorns, prepared for them by individuals far beneath them in rank—I conceived, in short, that this mighty monster of the deep reigned absolute and uncontrouled;—but was soon undeceived, and forced to confess, that his power was as vulnerable as that of many among ourselves. I could perceive, on a nicer view, that this seeming lord of the ocean had many uneasy moments to render his station less enviable, and weaken its contrast to that of man. His great bulk, which I had hitherto considered as a blessing that placed him at the head of the watry creation, and beyond the reach of enemies, now only served as a more conspicuous mark for them to aim at; and, by its unwieldiness, to deprive him of the means of defence. The thresher, a diminutive fish, compared to the whale, was among the most active and inveterate of his foes: this ancient enemy of the bulky

whale, for such he appeared to be, is armed with two members, which he exercises like flails upon the objects of resentment. Whenever the whale arose towards the top of the water, the thresher would pursue and unmercifully belabour him with those weapons--while he dextrously avoided the blows of this huge, but unwieldy antagonist--till the latter was fain to retreat and descend. No sooner had the whale sought for refuge below from one enemy, than he met with another in the sword-fish, who, equally daring and vigilant with the former, would often amuse himself by plunging his sword into the belly of the persecuted fish.---

I should have been at a loss to account for this wanton propensity in these two smaller fishes to torment, and destroy, if possible, the great one—perhaps the greatest of the finny tribe--had not the sudden recollection of certain characters among ourselves furnished me with a solution to the difficulty. I remembered there were such men as scribblers---ever active and daring in disturbing the repose of those who have attained literary pre eminence---or risen to high political stations. I said to myself---'little folks, like the thresher 'and sword-fish, cannot bear with 'any greater than themselves---On 'the other hand,' said I, 'great praise 'is sometimes given where it is not 'due—and important offices are often filled by pitiful characters— 'Hence he who seeks an elevation 'unfitting his pretensions, must expect to be baited when up, and despised when down. Let us profit,' continued I, 'by the lesson before 'us—neither the greatness of the 'whale—the upper station he took in 'the ocean—nor his retreat into the 'low and retired parts of it could 'shield him from the merciless blows 'of one enemy, or the murderous 'stabs of the other—a convincing 'proof this that greatness is not 'the handmaid of happiness, nor productive of that security and repose 'so fondly painted in the minds of 'aspiring men!'————

This scene of enmity roused my compassion---and, as my power extended no farther than observation, I turned from it;--but the next object which drew my attention proved no less disagreeable. Various kinds of the cruel and voracious shark appeared in shoals: some were engaged in snapping up the small fry; while others, intent only on man himself, were tinging their tracks with human gore: They were relentless and insatiable. 'These,' said I to myself, 'must 'have been moulded out of swindlers 'contractors, usurers and pettifog-'gers---but, above all, many of them 'must have followed, in their former 'state, the profession of plundering and 'butchering the human species, for the 'obtaining of false glory, and the lucre 'of gain.'

A shoal of porpoises now claimed my notice: their plump and sleek carcases shewed they had been used to fare deliciously. They passed with seeming contempt many of the finny tribes, as if beneath their notice: but I observed that whenever a peculiar sort happened to pop in view, they instantly united in his destruction and devoured him with the voracious-ness of a glutton.--This dainty group had undoubtedly been full-fed aldermen in their time.

Next came a shoal of flying fish flattering and dipping as they alternately cleft the two elements. The aerial frolics in which they were engaged, and the pains they took to display their pretty shapes, convinced me, this frolicksome tribe belonged to the order of beaux--while the painted dolphins, who hung upon the rear were as so many modern belles upon the watch to pick up stragglers.

The eschinus, or Sea-hedge-hog was the next species I examined. I perceived them scattered in numbers among the various inhabitants of the ocean, but the sharp spines which covered this species rendered them disagreeable to others, and unsociable among themselves. I found they belonged to the tribe of *Grumbletonians* and were formerly distinguished by the name of *Croakers*, from a right the

ssumed of pestering their neighbours nd plaguing themselves.

The thornback, perch, and some thers, carried ample testimonials hat the impertinent shafts of the nu- nerous band of would-be-wits, had nany advocates among the finny race. The active freaks of a group of stur- eons now afforded me peculiar amuse- ment; and had they been less nume- ous, I might have taken them for the hole tribe of morris dancers. I had een, however, the pleasures of a rural ake, and the pastimes of leap-frog, op-step-and-jump &c. the recollec- on of which led me to class these vely blades among the votaries of hose diversions.

While I was smiling at this sight, a trange fish, which I took to be a non- escript, caught my eye as it glided ong --the seeming novelty arrested ıy attention. It had two large haun- ıes somewhat like those of a camel · dromedary, though differently si- uate, the one being near the head, at ıe upper part of the stomach; the o- ıer upon the back, towards the t il. ansacking my invention for a name, o give to an appearance so new and ngular, the dromedary-fish seemed o be the most suitable appellation, of l ot ers I could devise. I had just ıade up my mind upon it, when, lo! ıe parts I had regarded as a distinct- e variation of nature, now convinced ıe, by a turn of the fish, that they ere mere deformities, the effect of ac- dent, or the misfortune of birth.— A clear inspection determined this monster to be simply a cat-fish, with two unhappy protuberances, resem- bling those of a modern Venus, com- monly called the gorge and the bi- shop------I felt a suffusion overspread my cheeks at the parrallel which ima- gination compelled me to draw.

At this instant, my sleeping fancy was diverted from these disgusting scenes, to the shady brooks and pur- ling streams of a romantic solitude.

The natural beauties of the place commanded my attention, and pre-en- gaged my approbation in favour of its watry inhabitants—with whom I now felt anxious to be acquainted. My curiosity was soon gratified---Here troops of spotted trout were ranging through the silver stream in after pursuit of a poor defenceless fly--the insect of a day; while others, more splendidly variegated, were foolishly engaged in catching at the bubbles and froth, which floated on the surface, as if it were food of exquisite flavour. I perceived these had been the gay, the trifling, and the thoughtless in life---while the former readily point- ed to my mind the character of a full-blooded fox-hunter. The frolics of these gentry were but of short duration--for scarcely had my eye sur- veyed this double group of figures, when out darted a formidable pike who had been lurking in ambuscade below them, and devoured the whole! My pity was roused!—I startled!—and awoke in a fright.

To the EDITOR of the COLUMBIAN MAGAZINE.

SIR,

The following piece in the oriental manner, lately written by a friend while in one of the eastern states, appeared afterwards in a public paper there: but as it has not, to my knowledge, been printed in any other, I venture to recommend it for a place in your entertaining miscellany.

Your constant reader,

A. B.

THE VISIONS OF ALEPH. *By Doctor* T.

Inscribed to the celebrated C——SS DE B---H-RN--S.

WHY, said the son of Aleph, does my father so often retire to the lent shade? or why do I find him musing on the murmuring voice of the stream? Often have I seen his eyes dwell in the blue heavens; often have I heard him sigh, as the black clouds were travelling into night. Tell me,

whence are thy sighs—tell me the wish of thy looks. Thy smiles are placid—and where is there a seat for sorrow in the soul of Aleph ?

His eyes turned for a moment upon his son—then fixed on heaven : his lips quivered—his frame shook—a tear fell upon his cheek, and in silence he clasped to his bosom the son of his youth.

The young roe bounded on the green; the lofty pines waved gently their branches; the face of nature wore a smile, and fresh beams of the sun darted from a cloud.—

The soul of Aleph is full, and the soul of his son heaves in dread.

Guardian of my youth ! am not I the friend of my father ? why wilt thou hide thine heart ? speak, Aleph ! speak, my father ! for mine shall drink thy words.

Heaven ! thine eye is open—the heart of Aleph is naked.

My son ! the tear that glistens in the eye of thy father is not the tear of sorrow. In his splendor thou hast seen the golden sun—in her glory thou hast viewed the silver moon—in their full lustre thou hast beheld the sparkling stars. The sun in all his majesty, the moon in all her glory, and the stars in their full lustre, are creatures but as Aleph, the wife, and the children of Aleph;—nay higher in glory has he been than the sun himself !

Behold the mother of delight advancing, and with her the sons and daughters of my love ! Welcome, sweet partner of my heart ! welcome beauteous offspring of love ! you come as Aleph prepares to break the seal of his bosom.

Recline beneath that shade of flowering vines, upon the turf which is scented by the breath of the lilly. You have observed lately that Aleph once took more pleasure in his flocks than now—that his meads give him not the same delight as before. True—the pleasure of Aleph is not here, for he has been permitted to taste of the happiness of heaven. When he rested upon thy bosom, beauteous daughter of earth ! a fire kindled in his heart, and his soul burned with voluptuous sensations : he looked with astonishment on all thy charms, and wondered if happiness could exceed his : the earth itself was gay, and every thing sported in joy. Aleph looked around, and for the bounties of heaven my heart flowed with gratitude. Man is happy, and the eyes of woman swim in pleasure ! As the star of morning vanished, and the curtains of night withdrew ; as the full-orbed sun arose in majesty, and threw upon the earth his first beams in the morning, I beheld with transport thy beauty awaking in the blushes of love. Thou knowest how thy charms absorbed the mind of Aleph. The tops of the mountains were then edged with gold, and their soft shades stretched along the valley : the leaf of each spray hung with pearls of dew ; the birds of every tree raised the voice of praise ; the cooing turtle bill'd with its mate ; life, love and joy were diffused ; and every grove sung the song of delight. As we walked on the borders of the mead, the flowers sprang to kiss thy feet, and the breeze came to catch thy fragrant breath. We bowed down with nature to adore its God ; but as Aleph in silence poured forth his soul, he sunk in the arms of his love : in a moment I was transported to the rock that overlooks the valley of Elon : the angel of peace appeared ; he struck the rock, and Aleph the son of the east, the father of man, bowed to the ground. 'Peace to man,' said the angel----and the palm which he held waved over the valley ---'peace to woman who bows with him ; her happiness be as complete ; for of him she partaketh ! Aleph ! thou hast drank of the fountain of all human bliss---now shalt thou taste of the cup of heavenly happiness, and thy soul hereafter rejoice in the shade of the wings of peace. Again he struck the rock, and disappeared.—

The earth was enlightened with a hundred suns, which were reflected by the calm lake of Elon : their rays sunk into a pale blue, and upon a throne of stars sat the Son of Heaven—— in his right hand he held the power of light ; in his left the power of darkness !

The cloud in his right hand opened, and my eyes were darkened by a flame of glory : the trumpet blew, and the piercing voice of the sprit of light called my soul to awake to a new existence. In a moment I beheld the sun obscur'd in dimness, and sunk beneath me---the earth but as a point wandering in the heavens! I breathed the odour of a thousand perfumes : my soul was filled with the soft melody of spiritual hymns : myriads of angels saluted me with the smiles of transport, and I was bathed in the tears of rapture : the soft dews of heaven moistened my heart, and diffused through it the sweets of delicious love. I beheld again the angel of peace, and under his wings my soul advanced in delight to the throne of the *Most High*. Millions of angels and archangels filled the heavens with one voice, saying, Holy, Holy, Holy! A cloud of incense arose before the throne of immaculate purity and love! The trumpet again blew, and the hallelujahs of every sanctified spirit was suspended in awful, holy, solemn, inconceivable *silence!* a silence in which Aleph breathed in the ravishment of unspeakable bliss!

He stopt---a sigh escaped from each bosom, and nothing else was heard but the gliding stream, which trickled as the waving grass dipped in its surface.

Ah!———why again did I visit the earth!---but it was the will of heaven.

When I was happy beyond expression, thou knewest not that Aleph had a thought.---I was roused as thy arm kindly lifted my head : I beheld thee in smiles, and nature displayed the varied beauties of Elon, yet to me how dull!---For a time I even looked on thee, my fair-one, as though thou wert a stranger---I thought it hard, for thy tenderness deserv'd no cool return, and press'd thee to my bosom.---Thy breath was a balm, and the moisture of thy lip as the dew of the blushing rose.---As I took thy hand, the gentle heaving of thy bosom was for me :---when I gazed upon thy beauty, thy vivid eyes melted in love ---the sweet notes of harmony that used to flow from thy tongue were now become the mild breathings of affection :---I sunk in soft delirium : ---I lived but in thee, and thou breathedst life into Aleph. How weak is the mind of man! My soul was again lost in the extacy of passion. I was enraptured in love! and, forgetting heaven, entranced in pleasure.

The dark clifts of Elon re-appeared,—but the angel of peace was not there!--The last ray of the sun was dead : the night-blast whistled through the trees, and the roaring of the lion echoed in the rocks : the caverns of the deep sounded, and the foundations of the earth shook : the thunder roll'd in the clouds ; they darkened and burst! I beheld again the Son of Heaven! but with fear I beheld him.

The cloud in his left hand opened, and seven thunders uttered their voices : I startled, and with shreaks of horror, plunged into darkness!--Pale wanderer what art thou?--Who is Aleph that dwells in the borders of Elon? Who is he that would give his soul to woman?--The black shadows of sin hover'd around me, and even the grass rose up in judgment :---the eye of my soul stared, and the gulph of guilt was big. Which way shall Aleph turn, for the howl of despair fills his mind? Which way shall he look, for a phantom is still there whose red eye rolls upon him! Thousands of ages are placed before him but as a moment—nay, less than a moment--Impenetrable darkness is on all sides, and where shall he tread, for in each step is a ten-fold horror!

The thunders again roared—but before the affrighted soul of Aleph arrived at the gulph of grief unutterable, and the shade of eternal misery, I awoke!

How happy was this return! How my soul leapt with joy that I was yet suffered to breathe, and to offer again in gladness the full gratitude of my heart! Father of mercies! what indeed is Aleph? and how worthy art thou of his continual adoration!--Praise incessant be thine!--Honour and power, and glory and majesty be for ever

thine!--Let Aleph and his whole family sing and rejoice in thee, for thy mercy in these visions.---They all bowed; they all wept and embraced---Where are the beauties of life? Where are the glories of the world?--They continue but a moment, and the door of eternity opens.---It opens---you enter ---it shuts!

Aleph grew pale.--I must, said he looking affectionately at each,---I must obey the summons. We shall meet again hereafter: we shall meet again in the abodes of peace, and never separate:--but now---ah! now, I must bid you farewel! Remember the visions of Aleph!--Hearken only to the voice of virtue, and with Aleph be happy!

There is a call which we must all obey---I have heard it---Farewel!

His words ceased!--each groaned, but none could speak! His eyes wandered for the last time upon surrounding nature---he sighed!---they fixed upon his wife and children---but all appeared dim---He sunk down!--they raised him up---but Aleph was dead!

For the COLUMBIAN MAGAZINE.

An Account of the MANNERS *of the* GERMAN INHABITANTS *of* PENNSYLVANIA.

THE state of Pennsylvania is so much indebted for her prosperity and reputation, to the German part of her citizens, that a short account of their manners may, perhaps, be useful and agreeable to their fellow citizens in every part of the United States.

The aged Germans, and the ancestors of those who are young, migrated chiefly from the Palatinate; from Alsace, Swabia, Saxony, and Switzerland; but natives of every principality and dukedom, in Germany, are to be found in different parts of the state. They brought but little property with them. A few pieces of gold or silver coin, a chest filled with clothes, a bible, and a prayer or an hymn book, constituted the whole stock of most of them. Many of them bound themselves, or one or more of their children, to masters, after their arrival, for four, five, or seven years, in order to pay for their passages across the ocean. A clergyman always accompanied them when they came in large bodies.

The principal part of them were farmers; but there were many mechanics, who brought with them a knowledge of those arts which are necessary and useful in all countries. These mechanics were chiefly weavers, taylors, tanners, shoe-makers, comb-makers, smiths of all kinds, butchers, bakers, paper-makers, watch makers, and sugar bakers. I shall begin this account of the German inhabitants of Pennsylvania, by describing the manners of the German farmers.

This body of citizens are not only industrious and frugal, but skilful cultivators of the earth. I shall enumerate a few particulars, in which they differ from most of the other farmers of Pennsylvania.

1st. In settling a tract of land, they always provide large and suitable accommodations for their horses and cattle, before they lay out much money in building a house for themselves. The barn and the stables are generally under one roof, and contrived in such a manner as to enable them to feed their horses and cattle, and to remove their dung, with as little trouble as possible. The first dwelling house upon this farm is small, and built of logs. It generally lasts the life time of the first settler of a tract of land; and hence they have a saying, that "a son should always begin his improvements where his father left off,"—that is, by building a large and convenient stone house.

2d. They always prefer good land, or that land on which there is a large

quantity of meadow ground. From an attention to the cultivation of grass, they often double the value of an old farm in a few years, and grow rich on farms, on which their predecessors of whom they purchased them, have nearly starved. They prefer purchasing farms with some improvements, to settling on a new tract of land.

2d. In clearing new land, they do not girdle the trees simply, and leave them to perish in the ground, as is the custom of their English or Irish neighbours; but they generally cut them down and burn them. In destroying under-wood and bushes, they generally grub them out of the ground; by which means a field is as fit for cultivation the second year after it is cleared, as it is in twenty years afterwards. The advantages of this mode of clearing, consist in the immediate product of the field, and in the greater facility with which it is ploughed harrowed and reaped. The expense of repairing a plough, which is often broken two or three times in a year by small stumps concealed in the ground, is often greater than the extraordinary expense of grubbing the same field completely, in clearing it.

4th. They feed their horses and cows, of which they keep only a small number, in such a manner, that the former perform twice the labour of those horses, and the latter yield twice the quantity of milk of those cows, that are less plentifully fed. There is great economy in this practice, especially in a country where so much of the labour of a farmer is necessary to support his domestic animals. A German horse is known in every part of the state: indeed he seems to "feel with his lord, the pleasure and the pride" of his extraordinary size or fat.

5th. The fences of a German farm are generally high, and well built; so that his fields seldom suffer from the inroads of his own, or his neighbours, horses, cattle, hogs, or sheep.

6th. The German farmers are great economists of their *wood*. Hence they burn it only in stoves, in which they consume but a 4th. or 5th. part of what is commonly burnt in ordinary open fire places: Besides, their horses are saved, by means of this economy, from that immense labour, in hauling wood in the middle of winter, which frequently unfits the horses of their neighbours for the toils of the ensuing spring. Their houses are, moreover, rendered so comfortable, at all times, by large close stoves, that twice the business is done by every branch of the family, in knitting, spinning, and mending farming utensils, that is done in houses where every member of the family crouds near to a common fire place, or shivers at a distance from it,—with hands and fingers that move, by reason of the cold, with only half their usual quickness.

They discover economy in the preservation and increase of their wood in several other ways. They sometimes defend it, by high fences, from their cattle; by which means the young forest trees are suffered to grow, to replace those that are cut down for the necessary use of the farm. But where this cannot be conveniently done, they surround the stump of that tree which is most useful for fences, viz. the chesnut, with a small triangular fence. From this stump a number of suckers shoot out in a few years, two or three of which, in the course of five and twenty years, grow into trees of the same size as the tree from whose roots they derived their origin.

7th. They keep their horses and cattle as warm as possible in winter, by which means they save a great deal of their hay and grain; for those animals, when cold, eat much more than when they are in a more comfortable situation.

8th. The German farmers live frugally in their families, with respect to diet, furniture and apparel. They sell their most profitable grain, which is wheat; and eat that which is less profitable, but more nourishing, that is rye or Indian corn. The profit to a farmer, from this single article of economy, is equal, in the course of a life time, to the price of a farm for one of his children. They eat sparingly of *boiled* animal food, with large quantities of vegetables, particularly with sallad, turneps, onions, and cabbage,

the last of which they make into *sour crout*. They likewise use a large quantity of milk and cheese in their diet. Perhaps the Germans do not proportion the quantity of their animal food, to the degrees of their labour; hence it has been thought, by some people, that they decline in strength sooner than their English or Irish neighbours. Very few of them ever use distilled spirits in their families: their common drinks are cyder, beer, wine, and simple water. The furniture of their house is plain and useful. They cover themselves in winter with light feather beds instead of blankets: in this contrivance there is both convenience and economy, for the beds are warmer than blankets, and they are made by themselves. The apparel of the German farmers is usually *homespun*. When they use European articles of dress, they prefer those which are of the best quality, and of the highest price. They are afraid of debt, and seldom purchase any thing without paying cash for it.

9th. The German farmers have large or profitable gardens near their houses. These contain little else but useful vegetables. Pennsylvania is indebted to the Germans for the principal part of her knowledge in horticulture. There was a time when turneps and cabbage were the principal vegetables that were used in diet by the citizens of Philadelphia. This will not surprize those persons, who know that the first English settlers in Pennsylvania, left England while horticulture was in its infancy in that country. It was not 'till the reign of William III. that this useful and agreeable art was cultivated by the English nation. Since the settlement of a number of German gardeners in the neighbourhood of Philadelphia, the tables of all classes of citizens have been covered with a variety of vegetables, in every season of the year; and to the use of these vegetables, in diet, may be ascribed the general exemption of the citizens of Philadelphia from diseases of the skin.

10th. The Germans seldom *hire* men to work upon their farms. The feebleness of that authority which masters possess over hired servants, is such that their wages are very seldom procured from their labour, except in harvest, when they work in the presence of their masters. The wives and daughters of the German farmers frequently forsake, for a while, their dairy and spinning wheel, and join their husbands and brothers in the labour of cutting down, collecting and bringing home the fruits of their fields and orchards. The work of the gardens is generally done by the women of the family.

11th. A large and strong waggon, covered with linen cloth, is an essential part of the furniture of a German farm. In this waggon, drawn by four or five large horses of a peculiar breed, they convey to market over the roughest roads, between 2 or 3 thousand pounds weight of the produce of their farms. In the months of september and october, it is no uncommon thing, on the Lancaster and Reading roads, to meet in one day from fifty to an hundred of these waggons, on their way to Philadelphia, most of which belong to German farmers.

12th. The favourable influence of agriculture, as conducted by the Germans in extending human happiness, is manifested by the joy they express upon the birth of a child. No dread of poverty, nor distrust of providence from an increasing family, depress the spirits of these industrious and frugal people. Upon the birth of a son, they exult in the gift of a ploughman or a waggoner; and upon the birth of a daughter, they rejoice in the addition of another spinster, or milk-maid, to their family. Happy state of human society! what blessings can civilization confer, that can atone for the extinction of the ancient and patriarchal pleasure of raising up a numerous and healthy family of children, to labour for their parents, for themselves, and for their country; and finally to partake of the knowledge and happiness which are annexed to existence! The joy of parents upon the birth of a child, is the grateful echo of creating goodness. May the mountains of Pennsylvania be for ever vocal, with songs of joy upon these occasions! They will be the infallible signs of innocence,

industry, wealth and happiness in the state.

15th. The Germans take great pains to produce, in their children, not only *habits* of labour, but a *love* of it. In this they submit to the irreversible sentence inflicted upon man, in such a manner, as to convert the wrath of heaven into private and public happiness. "To fear God, and to love work," are the first lessons they teach their children. They prefer industrious habits to money itself; hence, when a young man asks the consent of his father to marry the girl of his choice, he does not enquire so much whether she be rich or poor? or whether she possess any personal or mental accomplishments—as whether she be industrious, and acquainted with the duties of a good house-wife?

14th. The Germans set a great value upon patrimonial property. This useful principle in human nature prevents much folly and vice in young people. It moreover leads to lasting and extensive advantages, in the improvement of a farm; for what inducement can be stronger in a parent to plant an orchard, to preserve forest-trees, or to build a commodious and durable house, than the idea, that they will all be possessed by a succession of generations, who shall inherit his blood and name.

15th. The German farmers are very much influenced in planting and pruning trees, also in sowing and reaping, by the age and appearances of the moon. This attention to the state of the moon has been ascribed to superstition; but if the facts related by mr. Wilson in his observations upon climates are true, part of their success in agriculture must be ascribed to their being so much influenced by it.

16th. From the history that has been given of the German agriculture, it will hardly be necessary to add, that a German farm may be distinguished from the farms of the other citizens of the state, by the superior size of their barns; the plain, but compact form of their houses; the height of their enclosures; the extent of their orchards; the fertility of their fields; the luxuriance of their meadows, and a general appearance of plenty and neatness in every thing that belongs to them.

The German mechanic possesses some of the traits of the character that has been drawn of the German farmer. His first object is to become a freeholder; and hence we find few of them live in rented houses. The highest compliment that can be paid to them on entering their houses, is to ask them, 'is this house your own?' They are industrious, frugal, punctual and just. Since their settlement in Pennsylvania, many of them have acquired a knowledge of those mechanical arts, which are more immediately necessary and useful in a new country; while they continue at the same time, to carry on the arts they imported from Germany, with vigour and success.

But the genius of the Germans of Pennsylvania is not confined to agriculture and the mechanical arts. Many of them have acquired great wealth by foreign and domestic commerce. As merchants they are candid and punctual. The bank of North America has witnessed, from its first institution, their fidelity to all their pecuniary engagements.

Thus far have I described the *individual* character of several orders of the German citizens of Pennsylvania. I shall now take notice of some of their manners in a collective capacity.

All the different sects among them are particularly attentive to the religious education of their children, and to the establishment and support of the christian religion. For this purpose they settle as much as possible together—and make the erection of a school house and a place of worship the first objects of their care. They commit the education and instruction of their children in a peculiar manner to the ministers and officers of their churches;—hence they grow up with prejudices in favour of public worship, and of the obligations of christianity. Such has been the influence of a pious education among the German lutherans in Pennsylvania, that in the course of nineteen years, only one of

them has ever been brought to a place of public shame or punishment.

As members of civil government, the Germans are peaceable,—and exact in the payment of their taxes. Since they have participated in the power of the state, many of them have become sensible and enlightened in the science of legislation. Pennsylvania has had the speaker's chair of her assembly, and the vice-president's office of her council, filled with dignity by gentlemen of German families. The same gentlemen have since been advanced to seats in the house of representatives, under the new constitution of the United States. In the great controversy about the national government, a large majority of the Germans in Pennsylvania decided in favour of its adoption, notwithstanding the most popular arts were used to prejudice them against it.

The Germans are but little addicted to convivial pleasures.

They seldom meet for the simple purpose of eating and drinking in what are justly called 'feeding parties'; but they are not strangers to the virtue of hospitality.—The hungry or benighted traveller is always sure to find a hearty welcome under their roofs. A gentleman of Irish extraction, who lost his way in travelling through Lancaster county, called late at night at the door of a German farmer: he was kindly received and entertained with the best of every thing the house afforded. The next morning, he offered to pay his host for his lodging, and other accommodations: 'No' said the friendly German, in broken English—'I will take nothing from you. I was once lost, and entertained, as you have been, at the house of a stranger who would take no pay from me for his trouble. I am therefore now only discharging that debt:—do you pay your debt to me in the same way to somebody else.'—

They are extremely kind and friendly as neighbours. They often assist each other by loans of money for a short time, without interest—when the purchase of a plantation makes a larger sum necessary than is commonly possessed by a single farmer. To secure their confidence, it is necessary to be punctual. They never lend money a second time, to a man who has once disappointed them in paying what he had borrowed agreeably to his promise or obligation. It was remarked, during the late war, that there were very few instances of any of them discharging a bond, or a debt, with depreciated paper money.

It has been said, that the Germans are deficient in learning; and that in consequence of their want of more general and extensive education, they are much addicted to superstition, and are frequently imposed upon in the management of their affairs. Many of them have lost valuable estates, by being unacquainted with the common forms of law, in the most simple transactions; and many more of them have lost their lives, by applying to quacks in sickness: But this objection to the Germans will soon cease to have any foundation in Pennsylvania. Several young men, born of German parents, have been educated in law, physic and divinity, who have demonstrated by their abilities and knowledge, that the German genius for literature has not depreciated in America. A college has lately been founded by the state in Lancaster*, and committed chiefly to the care of the Germans of all sects, for the purpose of diffusing learning among their children. In this college they are to be taught the German and English languages, and all those branches of literature which are usually taught in the colleges of Europe and America. The principal of this college is a native of Pennsylvania, of German parentage. His extensive knowledge and taste in the arts and sciences, joined with his industry in the discharge of the duties of his station, have afforded to the friends of learning in Pennsylvania, the most flattering prospects of the future im-

* This college is called after dr. FRANKLIN, who was president of the state at the time it was founded, and who contributed very liberally to its funds.

portance and usefulness of this institution.

Both sexes of the Germans discover a strong propensity to vocal and instrumental music. They excel, in psalmody, all the other religious societies in the state.

The freedom and toleration of the government has produced a great variety of sects, among the Germans in Pennsylvania. The Lutherans compose a great proportion of the German citizens of the state. Many of their churches are large and splendid. The German Presbyterians are the next to them in numbers. Their churches are likewise large, and furnished, in many places, with organs. The clergy belonging to these churches, have moderate; salaries but they are punctually and justly paid. In the country they have glebes, which are stocked and occasionally worked by their congregations. The extra expences of their ministers, in all their excursions to their ecclesiastical meetings, are borne by their respective congregations: by this means the discipline and general interests of their churches are preserved and promoted. The German Lutherans and Presbyterians live in great harmony with each other; insomuch that they often preach in each other's churches, and, in some instances, unite in building a church, in which they both worship at different times. This harmony between two sects, once so much opposed to each other, is owing to the relaxation of the Presbyterians in some of the peculiar doctrines of Calvinism. I have called them Presbyterians, because most of them object to being designated by the name of Calvinists. The Menonists, the Moravians, the Swingfielders, and the Catholics, compose the other sects of the German inhabitants of Pennsylvania. The Menonists hold war and oaths to be unlawful. They admit the sacraments of baptism, by *sprinkling*, and the supper. From them a sect has arisen, who hold, with the above principles and ceremonies, the necessity of *immersion* in baptism; hence they are called *Dunkers*, or Baptists. Previously to their partaking of the sacrament of the supper, they wash each other's feet, and set down to a love-feast. They practise these ceremonies of their religion with great humility and solemnity. They, moreover, hold the doctrine of universal salvation. From this sect there have been several seceders, one of whom devoted themselves to perpetual celibacy. They have exhibited, for many years, a curious spectacle of pious mortification, at a village called Ephrata, in Lancaster county. They are at present reduced to fourteen or fifteen members. The *Seperatists*, who likewise dissented from the Dunkers, reject the ordinances of baptism and the sacrament; and hold the doctrine of the *Friends*, concerning the internal revelation of the gospel. They hold, with the Dunkers, the doctrine of universal salvation. The singular piety and exemplary morality of these sects, have been urged, by the advocates for the salvation of all mankind, as a proof that the belief of that doctrine is not so unfriendly to morals, and the order of society, as has been supposed. The Dunkers and Seperatists agree in taking no interest upon money, and in not applying to law to recover their debts.

The German Moravians are a numerous and respectable body of christians in Pennsylvania. In their village of Bethlehem, there are two large stone buildings, in which the different sexes are educated in habits of industry in useful manufactures. The sisters (for by that epithet the women are called) all sleep in two large and neat apartments. Two of them watch over the rest, in turns, every night, to afford relief from those sudden indispositions which sometimes occur, in the most healthy persons, in the hours of sleep. It is impossible to record this fact, without pausing a moment to do homage to that religion, which produces so much union and kindness in human souls. The number of women who belong to this sequestered female society, amounts sometimes to 120, and seldom to less than 100. It is remarkable that notwithstanding they lead a

sedentary life, and sit constantly in close stove-rooms in winter, that not more than one of them, upon an average, dies in a year. The disease which generally produces this annual death, is the consumption. The conditions and ages of the women of the village, as well as of the society that has been mentioned, are distinguished by ribbands of a peculiar kind which they wear on their caps: the widows, by white; the married women, by blue; the single women, above 18 years of age, by pink; and those under that age, by a ribband of a cinnamon colour. Formerly this body of Moravians held all their property in common, in imitation of the primitive christians; but, in the year 1760, a division of the whole of it took place, except a tavern, a tan-yard, 2000 acres of land near Bethlehem, and 5000 acres near Nazareth, a village in the neighbourhood of Bethlehem. The profits of these estates are appropriated to the support and propagation of the gospel. There are many valuable manufactures carried on at Bethlehem. The inhabitants possess a gentleness in their manners, which is peculiarly agreeable to strangers. They inure their children, of five and six years old, to habits of early industry. By this means they are not only taught those kinds of labour which are suited to their strength and capacities, but are preserved from many of the hurtful vices and accidents to which children are exposed.

The Swingfielders are a small society. They hold the same principles as the Friends, but they differ from them in using psalmody in their worship.

The German Catholics are numerous in Philadelphia, and have several small chapels in other parts of the state.

There is an incorporated charitable society of Germans in Philadelphia, whose objects are their poor or distressed countrymen.

There is likewise a German society of labourers and journeymen mechanics, who contribute 2s. 6d. eight times a year, towards a fund, out of which they allow 30s. a week to each other's families, when the head of it is unable to work; and 7l. 10s. to his widow, as soon as he is taken from his family by death.

The Germans of Pennsylvania, including all the sects that have been mentioned, compose nearly one third part of the whole inhabitants of the state.

The intercourse of the Germans with each other, is kept up chiefly in their own language; but most of their men, who visit the capital, and the trading or county towns of the state, speak the English language. A certain number of the laws of the state are now printed in German, for the benefit of those of them who cannot read English. A large number of German news-papers are likewise circulated through the state; by which knowledge and intelligence have been diffused, much to the advantage of the government. There is scarcely an instance of a German, of either sex, in Pennsylvania, that cannot read; but many of the wives and daughters of the German farmers cannot write. The present state of society among them renders this accomplishment of little consequence to their improvement or happiness.

If it were possible to determine the amount of all the property brought into Pennsylvania by the present German inhabitants of the state, and their ancestors, and then compare it with the present amount of their property, the contrast would form such a monument of human INDUSTRY and ECONOMY as has seldom been contemplated in any age or country.

I have been informed that there was an ancient prophecy which foretold, that 'God would bless the Germans 'in foreign countries.' This prediction has been faithfully verified in Pennsylvania. They enjoy here every blessing that liberty, toleration, independence, affluence, virtue and reputation, can confer upon them.

How different is their situation here, from what it was in Germany! Could the subjects of the princes of Germany, who now groan away their lives in slavery and unprofitable labour, view from an eminence, in the month of

June, the German settlements of Stratsburg, or Manheim in Lancaster county, or of Lebanon or Bethlehem in the counties of Dauphin and Northampton; could they be accompanied on this eminence by a venerable German farmer, and be told by him that many of those extensive fields of grain, full fed herds, luxuriant meadows, orchards promissing loads of fruit, together with the spacious barns and commodious stone-dwelling houses, which compose the prospects that have been mentioned, were all the product of the labour of a single family, and of *one* generation; and that they were all secured to the owners of them by *certain* laws; I am persuaded that no chains would be be able to detain them from sharing in the freedom of their Pennsylvania friends and former fellow-subjects. 'We will assert our dignity'—(would be their language) 'we will be men—we will be free—we will enjoy the fruits of our own labours—we will no longer be bought and sold to fight battles in which we have neither interest nor resentment—we will inherit a portion of that blessing which God has promised to the Germans in foreign countries—we will be Pennsylvanians'.

I shall conclude this account of the manners of the German inhabitants of Pennsylvania by remarking that if I have failed in doing them justice, it has not been the fault of my subject. The German character once employed the pen of one of the first historians of antiquity—I mean the elegant and enlightened Tacitus. It is very remarkable that the Germans in Pennsylvania retain in a great degree all the virtues which this author ascribes to their ancestors in his treatise '*de moribus Germanorum*'.—They inherit their integrity—fidelity—and chastity—but christianity has banished from them, their drunkenness, idleness, and love of military glory. There is a singular trait in the features of the German character in Pennsylvania, which shews how long the most trifling custom may exist among people who have not been mixed with other nations. Tacitus describes the manner in which the ancient Germans build their villages, in the following words. '*Suam quisque domum spatio circumdat sive adversus casus ignis remedium, sive inscitia ædificandi.*' Many of the German villages in Pennsylvania are constructed in the same manner: the small houses are composed of a mixture, of wood, brick and clay, neatly united together; the large houses are built of stone, and many of them after the English fashion. Very few of the houses in Germantown are connected together.—Where the Germans connect their houses in their villages, they appear to have deviated from one of the customs they imported from Germany.

CITIZENS of the United States! learn from the account that has been given of the German inhabitants of Pennsylvania, to prize knowledge and industry in agriculture and manufactures, as the basis of domestic happiness and national prosperity.

LEGISLATORS of the United-States! learn from the wealth, and independence of the German inhabitants of Pennsylvania, to encourage by your example and laws the republican virtues of industry and economy.—They are the only pillars which can support the present constitution of the United States.

LEGISLATORS of Pennsylvania! learn from the history of your German fellow citizens that you possess an inexhaustible treasure in the bosom of the state, in their manners and arts. Continue to patronize their newly established seminary of learning, and spare no expense in supporting their public free-schools. The vices which follow the want of religious instruction, among the children of poor people, lay the foundation of most of the jails, and places of public punishment in the state. Do not contend with their prejudices in favour of their language: it will be the channel through which the knowledge and discoveries of one of the wisest nations in Europe, may be conveyed into our country. In proportion

as they are instructed and enlightened in their own language, they will become acquainted with the language of the United States. Invite them to share in the power and offices of government: it will be the means of producing an union in principle and conduct between them, and those of their enlightened fellow-citizens who are descended from other nations. Above all, cherish with peculiar tenderness, those sects among them who hold war to be unlawful.—Relieve them from the oppression of absurd and unnecessary militia laws. Protect them as the repositories of a truth of the gospel, which has existed in every age of the church, and which must spread hereafter over every part of the world.

The opinions respecting the commerce and slavery of the Africans, which have nearly produced a revolution in their favour, in some of the European governments, were transplanted from a sect of christians in Pennsylvania. Perhaps those German sects of christians among us, who refuse to bear arms for the purpose of shedding human blood, may be preserved by divine providence, as the centre of a circle, which shall gradually embrace all the nations of the earth in a perpetual treaty of friendship and peace.

To the EDITOR of the COLUMBIAN MAGAZINE.

SIR,

THE two following verses, which I have styled an *Orthographical Paradox*, are literally the same in sense, and yet essentially different in their apparent meaning; one being a moral subject, viz. a confession of guilt—the other, a political exhortation. If any of your correspondents should chuse to amuse themselves with an investigation, I would thank them for a solution.

EQUIVOCUS.

An Orthographical Paradox.

I.

TIME rides a pace;
Age comes in place: & I dare sin secure.
In vice *I*am base;
*I*am false in face: nor dare I live more pure.

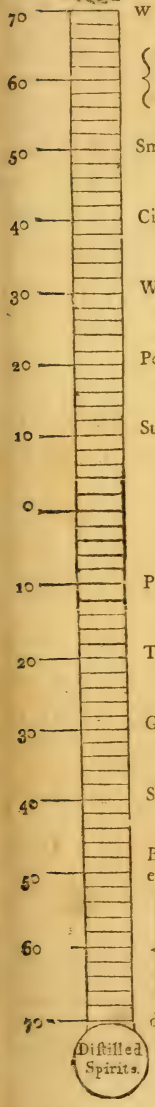
II.

My friend! in peace thou dost rejoice;
But go—and fear with flatt'ring voice
A power supreme to give:
Then grudge to give unbounded sway;
A basis firm in duty lay;
Or go and basely live.

For the COLUMBIAN MAGAZINE.

A MORAL *and* PHYSICAL THERMOMETER:
Or;
A SCALE *of the Progress of* TEMPERANCE *and* INTEMPERANCE.

LIQUORS, with their EFFECTS, in their usual order.



TEMPERANCE.

WATER;	Health, Wealth,
Milk and water, Vinegar and water, Molasses and water;	Serenity of mind, Reputation, long life and
Small beer;	Happiness.
Cider;	Cheerfulness,
Wine;	Strength and
Porter;	Nourishment, when taken only at meals, and in moderate
Strong beer;	quantities.

INTEMPERANCE.

	VICES	DISEASES.	PUNISHMENTS.
Punch;	Idleness;	Sickness;	Debt;
Toddy;	Pevishness;	Puking and	Black-eyes;
Grog;	Quarrelling;	Tremors of the hands, in the morning;	Rags;
Slings;	Fighting;	Bloatedness;	Hunger;
Bitters infused in spirits;	Lying;	Inflamed eyes;	Hospital;
Rum Gin, Brandy, Whisky & Jamaica spirits. in the *morning*;	Swearing;	Red nose & face;	Poor-house;
do. during the *day* & *night*	Obscenity;	Sore and swelled legs;	Jail;
	Fraud;	Jaundice;	Whipping-post;
	Anarchy;	Pains in the limbs & burning in the palms of the hands, and soles of the feet;	Wheel-barrow;
	Hatred of just government;	Dropsy;	GALLOWS.
	Murder;	Epilepsy;	
	Suicide,	Melancholy;	
		Idiotism;	
		Madness;	
		Palsy;	
		Apoplexy;	
		DEATH.	

For the COLUMBIAN MAGAZINE.

Thoughts on the CROTALUS HORRIDUS, *or* RATTLE-SNAKE.

IT is a generally received opinion among naturalists, that the *crotalus horridus*, or rattle-snake, offers an easy method of determining its age, by the number of rattles it possesses; each year affording, according to their sentiments, an additional rattle or fibula. The rattle which this MAGAZINE for November, 1786, mentions to have been "taken from a snake of rather a middling size, killed in the summer of that year, near fort Allen," engaged my attention on account of the number of its fibulæ, which were forty four.

From this instance, I was induced to question the authenticity of the reptile's receiving but one additional fibula each year: and upon prosecuting the enquiry, I was rather confirmed in the opinion, that these snakes do frequently part with these fibulæ; which I suppose may be done with as much freedom from pain, as the paring of the nails on the human hand: I therefore entertain a doubt whether the present received method of deciding on the number of years these reptiles have lived, is so certain but that a further investigation may possibly introduce some interesting result on the subject.

In the summer of 1788, a gentleman of some knowledge in natural history, having made an excursion into the back country, had the satisfaction of meeting with several rattle-snakes, which he killed. I saw six or seven of their rattles, and was informed by him, that one of these, composed of the greatest number of fibulæ, (to the amount of fourteen) was taken from a snake not quite three feet in length, and but about an inch and a half in circumference; the largest snake, which was five feet long, had but one rattle, and of course could make no sound with it.

From the foregoing facts I have sometimes indulged an idea, that these reptiles have frequently more than a single cell or rattle in a year: that these horny cells are formed by the excrescence which exudes from the animal; that in proportion as this excrescence abounds, the number of the fibulæ is increased, and that the secretion of this matter in some of them is so small, that they may be many years without furnishing sufficient for a single appendage to their tail. Besides this, there is a second consideration, which appears to me more than mere hypothesis, and may operate against determining their age by the number of their rattles,—I mean the annually casting off their skins, and the rattles being frequently left with the old sheath. It is not unlikely that one of these two causes occasioned the loss which the snake just now mentioned, sustained in the deprivation of this curious appendage; or, perhaps, in passing between the small shrubs such an event might take place; and I have been informed that this last frequently happens. The probability of the one which we have an account of in the MAGAZINE for 1786, having lived forty four years, appears chimerical, its diminutive size scarcely admitting the idea.

The foregoing difficulties in the natural history of the *crotalus horridus*, are offered, with a wish that some ingenious naturalist may take up the subject, and indulge us with his sentiments thro' the medium of your entertaining MISCELLANY: and if the hypothesis here held up should be either supported or rejected by experience, we may expect it will at least tempt him to pursue a study so interesting;—his reward will be the pleasure of conveying information.

PHILO-NATURÆ.

On the making of POT-ASH; *by* Aaron Dexter, *M. D* -----*Communicated to the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, at Boston.*

HAVING had frequent applications from the manufacturers of pot-ash, to examine that article, when condemned by the assay-masters; I have been led to several observations, which are generally the result of experiments, respecting its defects and the causes of its impurity. From a con-

viction that those defects may be easily remedied, I have committed my remarks to paper, with a concise history of the manufacturing this salt, which I beg leave to submit to the consideration of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences; and if after their critical examination, they shall be thought to contain any useful hints, they will dispose of them as they think proper.

It is unnecessary to premise, that the great evil which injures the sale, and very much reduces the value of some of the American pot-ash, arises from foreign matters, such as common salt and earth, being accidentally mixed with it.

The furnaces and machines or apparatus commonly used in this country, for extracting the salts from the ashes, and for boiling and fluxing them, are undoubtedly of a good kind.

The first important object to be observed, is to extract all the salts from the ashes. For this purpose, rain or river water ought always to be preferred. The ashes should be saturated and thoroughly wet, and remain, with about an inch of water over the top of them, twelve hours at least: then a small opening may be made in the bottom of the leach tub, which ought to contain a strainer, to prevent the ashes from running off. The lye discharged is fit for immediate use. As soon as the manufacturer begins to draw it off, he must apply fresh water, and continue that application and boiling the lyes, until they are so reduced in strength, as that they will no longer pay the expense of boiling. The ashes are however still to be preserved, and fresh water applied as before; and when drawn off they may be used with profit on fresh ashes, as long as there remain in the lies any salts, which may be discovered by the taste.

The lye that runs off for use, should be filtered as it passes the bottom of the tub, and also as it runs into the receiver; which process may be performed, without any expense or inconvenience, through clean straw. Previous to boiling the lye it ought to stand twenty four hours, and then be drawn into the kettles with great care, so as to leave all the sediment behind. Every precaution should be taken to let nothing fall into the lyes previous to, and whilst boiling: therefore, that injurious practice of laying wood on the kettles for drying, must be avoided.

Strong lyes may always be boiled half way in the first operation; and others much more: after which they must be taken with care out of the kettles, and put into a receiver at hand. Being so shifted, a very small quantity of unslaked lime may be put into it, which serves to clarify and, at the same time, renders the lie more pungent to the taste. After standing quietly until it cools to the state of blood heat, it must be again shifted: and in drawing off the lye in every instance, the utmost care must be taken that all the sediment, which is generally a chalky earth, is detained; which process will effectually seperate all the common salt, for that will congeal and crystalize with hot water in the same quantity as with cold water; which is not the case with any other neutral salt or alkali. If after all, from any circumstance unforeseen, the lyes shall not appear pure and clean, after taken from the last sediment, they must stand quiet until another is formed, or until it appears that no other will form: should one form, it must be seperated as before, prior to its being put into the kettles for the last operation. Without these precautions the pot-ash, in consequence of neutral salts and a chalky matter which are obtained from the ashes, will be hard to flux, and require a long time to effect it---which will greatly endanger the kettles; and, after it is fluxed, will be very impure, and sell for a reduced price, if the owner be fortunate enough to find a market at any rate.

The pot-ashes which I have examined, that have been condemned by the assay-masters, I have found to contain, principally, common earth; which is undoubtedly the chief source of impurity in the pot-ash of this country. If any crystals of common salt or nitre appear in the sediment, they may be preserved and purified by an easy

process, which is known to people in general who have attended to the manufacturing of saltpetre.

After the lye is properly cleared from earthy matter and common salt, which not only retards the fluxing process, as has been observed, but renders it unfit for many uses, particularly the bleaching of linens---it must continue boiling until evaporation shall cease; then the fire must be encreased until the salts are perfectly fluxed, for the purpose of destroying the inflammable substance, with which most of them abound---which may be determined by the following simple method. Take some pot-ash and dissolve it in water: let there be as much pot-ash as the water will dissolve. Then plunge a piece of silver coin, or any thin plate of silver, into the solution. If the pot-ash contains any inflammable matter, it will change the silver to a dark or black colour, in the same manner as if it had been over the steam of burning sulphur. By this easy experiment the manufacturer will be saved the expense and mortification of carrying pot-ash to market, which must sell for a very reduced price. Should the workman discover, on the experiment being made, the inflammable principle (or, what is called by the workmen, the oily substance, or fire) to exist in the pot-ash, it can be remedied only by dissolving in pure water, and boiling it down and fluxing it a second time; or it may be made into pearl-ashes, by calcination, with little expense.

Some manufacturers may be discouraged from going through this process, by the labour necessary in shifting the lye so often. But if they consider the advantages they will obtain in fluxing their pot-ash, which will be effected in less than half the time required in the usual way---and the great saving in the expense of kettles, by the lyes being made clean and pure; they will be reconciled to the method, notwithstanding the trouble; as their interest will be found, on experiment, to be concerned in its adoption, and as their pot-ash will find a more speedy market, and a higher price. Besides, the manufacturer and the merchant will never be doubtful of their adventures, and the reputation of American pot-ash will be equal, if not superior, to any that is manufactured in Europe.

For the COLUMBIAN MAGAZINE.

A DESCRIPTION *of a Machine, called* THE HORIZONTAL SPINNING-WHEEL.

[Illustrated by a Plate.]

IT must always afford us satisfaction to bring into public view, any invention or improvement that may favour the individual or national interest of Americans; we have therefore selected an invention, which while it promises to give employment to the poor, and support to the friendless orphan, may also enable children of either sex to provide for their infirm or aged parents.

The horizontal spinning-wheel, laid down in the plate annexed, was invented about twenty years ago by the late mr. Bernard Barton of Carlisle in England, a very ingenious linen manufacturer. At this machine twelve little girls may spin at once. It is so easily managed, that a child, with the slightest touch, can either disengage or set agoing at pleasure, any one of its wheels, without interfering with the rest.

This contrivance is so simple and ingenious, that little art is required to keep it in order, if it be properly understood at first.—

Considerably less strength is required here than at the common spinning-wheel; and the original expence of it in England does not exceed five pounds sterling:—it seldom needs repair. Several of these wheels have for upwards of fifteen years been employed in various parts of England, much to the honour of those by whose beneficence they were erected, and to the benefit of thousands of poor children in that kingdom.

Columb. Mag.

Fig. 1.

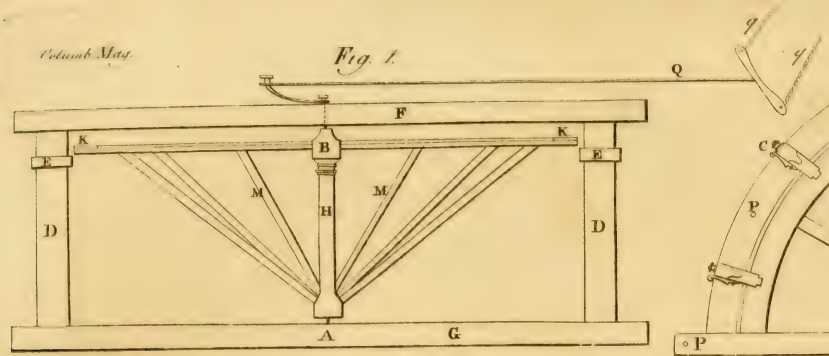
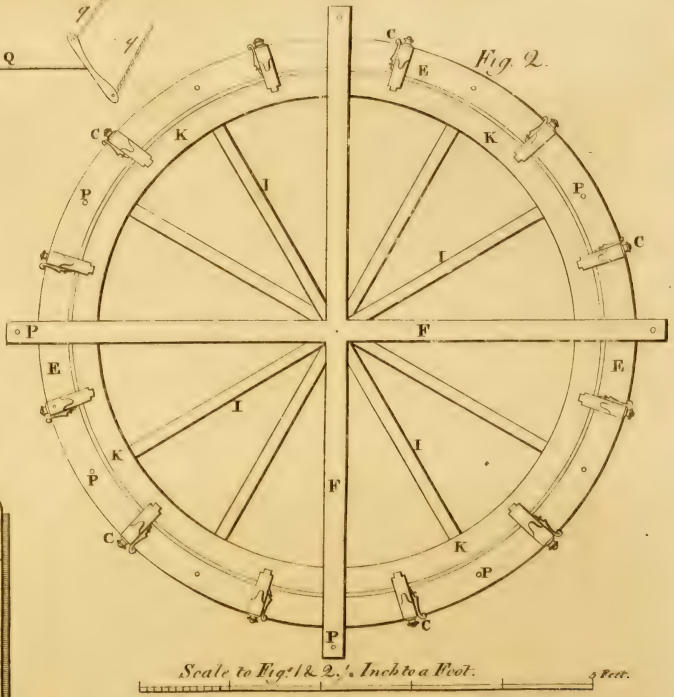


Fig. 2.



Scale to Fig.s 1 & 2. 1 Inch to a Foot. 5 Feet.

Fig. 3.

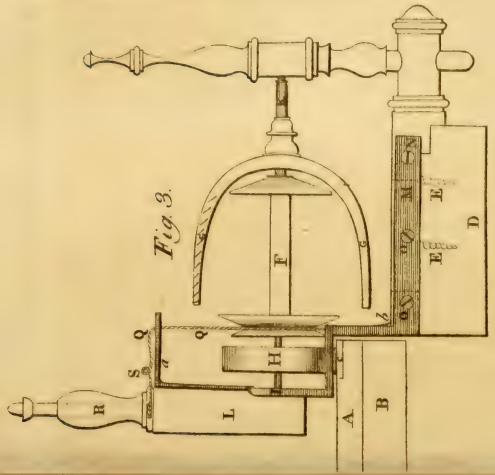
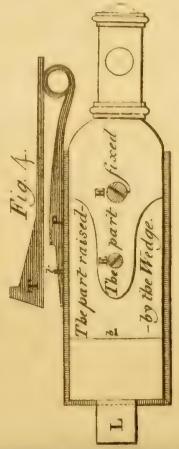


Fig. 4.



NB. Fig. 3 & 4 are ¼ of the Full Size.

For the COLUMBIAN MAGAZINE.

STRICTURES *on the* STYLE *of Doctor* BLAIR.

THE following Critique is part of an ingenious article in the Critical Review, which appeared in London soon after the publication of Blair's Lectures on Rhetoric and Belles Lettres. In order to render them the more useful, we have given references to both the British and American impressions.*

REDUNDANCIES.

'Sentences, as the author rightly observes should be cleared of redundant words, and redundant members.' Lond. ed. p. 227. Amer. ed. p. 99.

The small stock of words, which men, *as yet* possessed. Lon. 106. Am. 47. Let us proceed to consider *of* the style of language. Lon. 111. Am 49. The main design of this lecture is to consider *of* the means to be used for improvement in eloquence. Lon. ii. 228. Am. 116. To unite *together* copiousness and precision. Lon. 203. Am. 88. Going before them, or following *after* them. Lon. 281. Am. 122. What goes before and immediately follows *after*. Lon. 293. 415. Am. 127 182. What goes before may give light to what follows *after*. Lon. ii. 262. Am. 291. Inserted into what follows *after*. Lon. ii 262. Am. 331. The more exactly *that* this track is pursued, the more *that* eloquence is properly studied, the more shall we be guarded, &c. Lon. ii. 5. Am 221. Provided always *that* so much union be preserved. Lond. ii. 109. Am. 265. He must always take care, that *any* such allusions be natural and easy. Lon. ii 116. Am. 268. But *for you*, whenever I hear you, I go away displeased with myself. Lon. ii. 126. Am. 272 It must needs give pleasure, if we *shall* find the beauty and dignity of the composition adequate to the weight and importance of the matter. Lon. ii. 385. Am. 84. The more *that* this unity is rendered sensible to the imagination the effect will be the better. Lon. ii. 413. Am. 336. The nearer *that* a poet can bring the representation of an imitation of nature, the impression will be the more perfect. Lon ii. 510. Am 433.

Passages in which things are supposed to be in ONE CLASS, and, at the same time, represented as belonging to ANOTHER.

The relations, which of all *others*, we have the most frequent occasion to mention. Lon. 150. Am. 66 The relations which, of all *others*, are *by far* the most fruitful of tropes Lon. 263. Am. 128. Our past misfortunes afford a circumstance, the most favourable of all *others*, to our future hopes. Lon. ii. 63. Am. 245. Sure of acquiring that fame, and even veneration, which is, of all *other* rewards, the greatest incentive to genius. Lon. ii. 255. Am. 328.

The SUPERLATIVE degree instead of the COMPARATIVE.

Which of these two methods is of the *greatest* utility and beauty. Lon. 152. Am. 67. Of the two it is the *safest* extreme. Lon. 217. Am. 95. When our sentence consists of two members, the *longest* should, generally, be the concluding one. Lon. 238. Am 104. It remains, to this day, in doubt, whether his beauties or his faults be *greatest*. Lon. ii. 523. Am. 443.

DOUBLE COMPARATINES.

Lesser differences. Lon 27. Am. 12. Attend to all the *lesser* and more refined graces. Lon. 43. ii. 22. Am. 19. 228. The *lesser* forms of poetry. Lon. ii. 335 Am. 362.----*Lesser* is a corruption of *less* ; but the author has innumerable authorities for using it.

* The American copy was published in one volume, quarto, by Mr. Robert Aitken, of Philadelphia.

Adjectives having a SUPERLATIVE signification, improperly used in a COMPARATIVE sense, or compared by *more* and *most*.

The characters of taste, when brought to its *most perfect* state, are reducible to two, delicacy and correctness. Lon. . Am.* ----*Most perfect*, tho' a common, is not an eligible expression; because *perfect*, being an absolute term, cannot with *strict* propriety be used comparatively. In this passage it would be better to say, its *perfect*, or, its most *improved* state.

Nothing that belongs to human nature is *more universal* than the relish of beauty. Lon. 17. Am. 8. The foundation, upon which they rest, is what has been found from experience to please mankind *most universally*. Lon. 31 Am. 17. We can conceive no motive which would *more universally* operate upon men. Lon 102. Am. 45. The vehement manner of speaking by tones and gestures became not *so universal*. Lon. 116. Am. 51. Music is known to have been a more extensive art among them, than it is with us; *more universally* studied. Lon. 252. Am. 110. The practice of reading sermons has prevailed *so universally* in England. Lon ii. 43. Am. 237. Nothing has *so* great and *universal* a command over the minds of men as virtue. Lon. ii. 230. Am. 317. The reputation of *great* ancient classics being so early, so lasting, *so universal*, among all the most polished nations. Lon. ii. 252. Am. 326. Thuanus has, by attempting to make the history of his own times *too universal*, fallen into the same error. Lon. ii. 266. Am. 30 --- We may say, more *general*, more *extensive*, &c. but we cannot, with any propriety, say *more universal*.

ADJECTIVES instead of ADVERBS.

We can *much easier* form the conception of a fierce combat between two men than between a bull and a tiger. Lon. 31. Am. 54. --We can *more easily*.

It might be requisite for them to be *exceeding* full. Lon. ii. 10. Am. 266.

ANY instead of EITHER.

The verse marches with a more slow and measured pace, than in *any* of the two former cases. Lon. ii. 330. Am. 300.

EITHER instead of EACH.

Truth, duty and interest. But the arguments directed towards *either* of them are generally distinct. Lon. i. 184 Am. 298. --*Either* refers to *two* things only.

The distributive noun NEITHER, improperly followed by the possessive pronoun in the PLURAL number.

Sight and feeling are, in this respect, perfectly on a level; *neither* of them can extend beyond *their* own objects. Lon. 413. Am. 181. -- *Its* own objects. *Neither* relates to two persons or things taken separately.

EACH improperly followed by a verb in the PLURAL number.

Here are several different objects, and *each* of them *are* addressed or spoken to. Lon. 335. Am 147 ---*Is* addressed.

EACH OTHER instead of ONE ANOTHER.

By what bond could any multitude of men be kept together, *until once*, by the intervention of speech, they communicate their wants and intentions to *each other*. Lon 100. Am. 44. Objects could not be discerned from *each other*. Lon. 156. Am. 68.-- A great number of governments invade *each other*. Lon. ii. 11. Am. 223.

ONE ANOTHER instead of EACH OTHER.

Two men, ignorant of *one another's* language. Lon. 102. Am. 45. The close relation of any two words to *one another* in meaning. Lon. 122. Am. 54 Where two things are compared or contrasted to *one another*. Lon. 243. Am. 106. Which two opinions are entirely consistent with *one another*. Lon. 400. Am. 216. The characters of Corneille and Racine are happily contrasted with *one another*. Lon. ii. 20. Am. 402 --*Each other*. like the word *both*, ought only to be used when we are speaking of two things; *one another*,

* The page is omitted in the original.

when we are speaking of more than two. ONE followed by a pronomin l adjecti e in the PLURAL numb r.

It has been advised by writers on this subj ct [action] to practise before a mirror, whe e *one* may see, an l judge of *their* own gestures. Lon. ii. 222. Am. 314.

THEM BOTH.

The representing *them both* as subject, at one mom nt, to he command of God, produces a noble effect. L n. 62. Am. 28. The single word 'ascertain,' conveys the import of *them both*. Lon. 418. Am. 183. Ez kiel, in poetical grace and elegance, is muc i inferior to *them both*. Lon. ii. 403. Am. 391. --*Them both* is an awkward pleonasm.

The RELATIVE not agreeing with the ANTECEDENT.

That ingeni us *nation*, *who have* done so much honor to moder literature. Lon. ii. 284. Am. 340.---*The writers* of that ingenious natio).

VERBS in the PLURAL NUMBER instead of the SINGULAR.

A great *mass* of rocks thrown together by the hand of nature, with w ldness and confusion, *strike* the mind with more r ndeur, than if they had been adjusted to *each other* with the most accurate symmetry. Lon. 52. Am. 23 - - The aut or might have said, *vast* rocks thrown together. *Mass* is not a noun of multitude.

My heart begins to be touche ; my gratitude *or* my compassion *begin* to flow Lon. ii. 192. Am. 30 .--- *Begins* to flow.

The smart, *or* the sneering manner of telling a story, *are* inconsiste twith the historical character. Lon. ii. 273. Am. 336. Neither the one, *nor* the other, *find* a proper place in is ory. Lon. ii 280 Am. 339. What the heart *or* the imagination *dictate*. Lon. ii. 299. Am 347. T ere was much ge ius in the world bef re there *were* learning or arts to refin it. L n. ii 343. Am. 366 --Before there *were arts* or learning.

YOU WAS instead of YOU WERE.

You *was* ind str st circumstances; you *was* pu hed to t e utmost. Lon. ii. 186. Am. 298. When you *was* mos in earnest. Lon. ii. 219. Am. 312.---*You* in English, *vous* in French, and *voi* in Italian, are uniformly and indisputably pronouns of the *plural* number. The us of them, in speaking to one person, is a modern refinement, intimating, that we regard the person we are speaking to, as much as we do a multitude of other people.

The SUBJUNCTIVE mode instead of the IND CATIVE.

I must observe, that, although this part of style *merit* attention, and *be* a very proper object of science and rule; although *much* of the beauty of composition *depend* on figurative language; yet we must beware of imagining, that *it* depends *solely*, r even chiefly, upon such language. Lon. 277. Am 120. ---That figurative language merits attention, and is a very proper object of science an rule, are positions which do not admit of the least doubt, and therefore should not have been expressed in the subjunctive mood; more especially as the verb *depends*, in the same sentence, and in the same circumstances, is used in the indicative.

We shall be disgusted if he give us too much of the servile employments, and low ideas of actual peasants; and if he *makes* his shepherds discourse as if they were courtiers, &c. Lond. ii 338. Am 364.

It *were* much to be wished, that some such work were undertaken. Lond. ed. 201. Am. 88. It *were* to be wished, for the honor of his memory. Lond. ii. 301. Am. 348. ——'It *were* to be wished' is an absurd phrase. There is no pretence for the use of the subjunctive mood in this case. 'It *is* to be wished' is the proper expression

Sermons are always the more striking, and commonly the more useful, the more precise and particular the subject of them *be*. Lon. ii. 209 Am. 265.—Here is likewise no pretence for the use of the subjunctive mood; and *be*, in the indicative, is obsolete.

VERBS which ought to be in the ACTIVE, or the PASSIVE voice, employed as NEUTERS.

The mist *dissipates*, which seemed formerly to hang over the object.---

Lon. 21. Am. 9.---The mist *is dissipated, evaporates*, or, *disappears*.

This manner of writing *obtained* among the Assyrians. Lo. 34. 145, 146, 151, &c. Am. 59, 63, 64, 66, &c. ---*Obtain'd* is frequently used as a neuter verb; but *prevailed* is preferable.

This readily *connects* with the flourishing period of a plant. Lon. 81. Am. 122 The reader soon *wearies* of this play of fancy. Lon. 313. Am 136. To keep up the reader's attention, and to prevent him from *tiring of* the author Lon. 382. Am. 167 - By *tiring of* the author, the professor means, *being tired* of him. But in this sentence, the expression can only signify the reader's tiring or fatiguing the author.

Such authors as these one never *tires of* reading Lon 395. Am. 173. Lest the reader should *tire of* what he may consider as petty remarks. Lon. 467. Am. 206. Every audience is very ready to *tire*. Lon. ii. 60. Am. 244. They begin to *tire*. ib. They will *tire of* it, and forget it. Lon. ii. 175. Am. 294 ---The verb *tire*, like the word *fatigue*, is generally used in the passive form: as, he is *tired* with reading, or, he begins to *be tired*.

The use of the word APPLIES,

The word 'nature' would have equally *applied* to idea and to soul. Lon. 44. Am 197.—have been equally *applicable*.

The epithet 'stately' *applies*, with more propriety, to 'palaces.' Lon. 466. Am 205.—My other observation, which *applies* equally to dean Swift and mr. Addison. Lon. 495. Am. 218. The saying *applies* to the subject now before us Lon ii 313.—Am 349.—This expression is a Scoticism, which has been lately introduced into the English language by some careless writers.

HAD instead of WOULD, attended with some other improper phrases, or a faulty arrangement.

Metaphors which need this apology of an 'as it were,' *had* generally *be* better omitted. Lon. 305. Am. 133 In this case figures *had* much better *be wanted*. Lon. 365. Am. 160.—This sentence *had* better *been wanting* altogether. Lon 425. Am 186 He *had* better *have* omitted the word. Lon. 434 Am 190. And *had* better *have been* expressed by, &c. Lon 436. Am. 191. This member of the sentence *had* much better *have been* omitted Lon. 449. 450 ii 159 Am 197. *Had* better *have been* dropped Lon. 450 Am 197. The parenthesi *had* better (far better) *have been* avoided. Lon 457 Am 200. By omitting the adverbs, the reader will perceive the gross absurdity of these phrases, *had be wanted*, *had have been* dropped, *had have been* avoided, &c The author should have said, this sentence *would* have been better omitted, &c.

WILL instead of SHALL.

Without having attended to this, we *will* be at a loss in understanding several passages of the classics. Lon. 109. Am 48 What we conceive clearly, we *will* naturally express with clearness Lon 402. Am. 176 As this sentence contains several inaccuracies, I *will* be obliged to enter into a minute discussion of its structure and parts. Lon 447. Am. 196. We *will* always be able to give most body to that pitch of voice to which in conversation we are accustomed Lon. 206. ii. 206. &c. Am. 111 307. &c.

WILL instead of MAY.

There are few great occasions of public speaking, in which one *will* not derive assistance from cultivated taste, and extensive knowledge. Lon. ii. 234 258. Am. 319 329.

SHALL instead of SHOULD

If it *shall* now be required, What are the proper sources of the sublime? Lon. 75. Am. 33.

WOULD instead of SHOULD.

The Asiatics at no time relished any thing but what was full of ornament and splendid in a degree, that we *would* denominate gaud. Lon. 26. Am. 12. There are no two words we *would* more readily take to be synonymous than 'amare' and 'diligere.' Lon. 196. Am. 85. 'Tutus and 'securus' are words which we *would* readily confound. Lon. 196. Am. 85. Without a careful attention to the sense, we *would* be naturally led, by

the rules of syntax, to refer it to the rising and setting of the sun. Lon 213. Am 93. We *would* be greatly at a loss, if we could not borrow assistance from figures. Lon 185*. Am.

If I should mingle in one discourse arguments for the love of God, and for the love of our neighbour, I *would* offend unpardonably against unity. Lon ii. 109. Am. 265.---If I were to mingle, I *should*.

From whom [Horace] we *would* be led to form a very high idea of the taste and genius of the Augustan age Lon. ii. 258 Am. 329. The heroes glorying, as we *would* think very indecently, over their fallen enemies. Lon ii. 429. Am. 403.

CAN and COULD instead of MAY and MIGHT.

The difference between them *can* be clearly pointed out. Lon. 40. Am. 18. Some trivial or misjudged circumstances, *can* be overlooked by the reader. Lon 72. Am 32 If it be of that elevating, solemn, and awful kind which distinguishes his feeling, we *can* pronounce it sublime. Lon. 75. Am 33. The history of the English language *can*, in this manner, be clearly traced. Lon. 171 Am. 74. A plain native style *can* be made equally strong and expressive with this Latinised English. Lon. 188. Am 82. Language *can* be rendered capable of this power of music. Lon 248. Am. 108. How easily *could* it have been mended by this transposition! Lon. 260. Am 113. This *can* be sometimes accomplished. Lon. 266. Am. 115. Even gloomy and dismal objects *can* be introduced into figures. Lon. 30. Am. 11 In solemn discourse this *can* often be done to good purpose Lon. 328. Am. 13. This inaccuracy *could* have been remedied Lon. 48. Am. 213. Most, or *all of* the matters, which *can* be the subject of public discourse. Lon. ii. 47. Am. 238. Formal introductions *can* without any prejudice, be omitted. Lon. ii. 159. Am. 287. Passages *can* be produced. Lon. ii. 455. Am 414. Ghosts, angels, and devil, *can* be conceived as existing. Lon. ii. 469. Am. 20

The PAST time instead of the PRESENT

If any should maintain that sugar *was* bitter, and tobacco *was* sweet, no reasonings could avail to prove it. Lon. 30. Am. 12 Old Horatius is reminded that his son stood alone against three, and asked, What *he would have had him to have done?* Lon. 53 Am. 23 -- The wish of Horatius must be referred either to the time of the combat, or to the time when the question is asked. In the former case, would it not be sufficient to say, 'What he would have wished him *to do*.' In the latter, What he would have wished him *to have done*' The sentiment, as the author has expressed it, is embarrassed, and requires some emendation

Two red columns that supported the portico, when they are made use of to support any part of a building in the massy, and thus *seemed* to figure a more substantial prop. Lon 89. Am. 39. The sentence contains three separate propositions, which *required* three separate sentences *to have unfolded* them. Lon. 44. Am. 16.---To *unfold* them.

OF instead of FROM

In an author's writing with propriety, his being free *of* the two former faults seems implied. Lon. 189. Am. 82. The style of Dean Swift is free *of* all affectation. Lon. 476 Am. 210. There may be writers much freer *of* such inaccuracies Lon. 495. Am 218. Chrysostome may be read with advantage, as being freer *of* false ornaments than the Latin fathers. Lon. ii 37. Am 234. It is not free *of* the fault which I imputed to Pliny's Epistles. Lon. ii. 31. Am 348. Tasso's Aminta is not wholly free *of* italian refinement. Lon. ii. 350. Am. 369. Racine wanted the copiousness and grandeur of Corneille's imagination, but is free *of* his bombast. Lon. ii. 519 Am. 442.

ON instead of IN.

By the custom of walking often *on* the streets. Lon. 197. Am. 87. The spectator speaks only the language of description, which is always *on* a lower tone. Lon. 321. Am. 40. The capital of nations, sudden revolu-

* There is an error in the reference, which we have not been able to correct.

ed *on* one conflagration. Lon. 359. Am. 158 To place any modern author *on* the same rank. Lon. ii. 38. Am. 235.

AMONG instead of IN.

Among a nation so enlightened and acute, *and where* the highest attention was paid to every thing elegant in the arts, we may naturally expect to find the public taste refined and judicious. Lon. ii. 12. Am. 224 --The preposition *among* implies a number of things, and therefore should not be prefixed to a noun, which either denotes one single object, or an aggregate of many, taken collectively.

NEVER instead of EVER.

Let a speaker have *never* so good a reason to be animated. Lon. ii. 56. Am. 242

THAT instead of AS.

A direction the more necessary, *that* the present *taste* of the age in writing, seems to *lean* more to style than to thought. Lon. 407. Am. 178 The harmony is the more happy, *that* the disposition of the members of the period, which suits the sound so well, is no less just and proper, with respect to the sense. Lon 411. Am. 180. These rules are the more necessary, *that* this is a part of the discourse which requires no small care. Lon. ii. 161. Am. 287.

INVERTED SENTENCES, which have an air of stiffness and affectation.

Considerable merit doubtless he has. Lon. 396. Am. 173 Of figures and ornament of every kind he is exceedingly fond. Lon. 397. Am. 174. Great virtues certainly he had. Lon. ii. 14. Am. 225. No contemptible orator he was. Lon ii. 16. Am. 226. Living examples of public speaking, it will not be expected that I should here point out. Lon. ii. 236. Am. 320. Imperfections in their works he may indeed point out; passages that are faulty he may shew. Lon. ii. 250. Am. 325. *Orators*, such as Cicero and Demosthenes, we have *none*. Lon ii. 257. Am. 329. Of orations, or public discourses of all kinds, I have already treated fully. Lon. ii. 259. Am. 330 With digressions and episodes he abounds. Lon. ii. 266. Am. 333. In Dodsley's Miscellanies several very beautiful lyric poems are to be found. Lon. ii. 360. Am. 373. Of parables the prophetical writings are full. Lon. ii. 398. Am. 388. Of lyric poetry, or that which is intended to be accompanied with music, the Old Testament is full. Lon. ii. 401. Am. 390. Than Terence nothing can be more delicate, more polished and elegant. Lon. ii. 538. Am. 449.

In these sentences the grammatical order of words would be much more natural and agreeable, than this inverted arrangement.

Suppose a man should gravely and seriously ask a friend to take a walk into his garden, in some such language as this :—' Into the garden let us walk, of flowers it is full, of fruit I think you are fond, on the trees some peaches are to be found, apricots this year I have none, to tea we shall return'—he would be thought a coxcomb or a pedant. Why then should such inverted expressions be used in our compositions?

METAPHORS.

' From the *influx* of so many *streams*, from the *junction* of so many dissimilar *parts*, it naturally follows, that the English, like every compounded language, must needs be somewhat *irregular*. We cannot expect from it that correspondence of parts, that complete analogy in *structure*, which may be found in those simpler languages, which have been formed in a manner within themselves, and built on one foundation.' Lon. 172. Am 75.—In this passage the English language is considered as a river and a structure: but these two images are inconsistent

' Rules tend to *enlighten* taste and to lead genius from unnatural deviations into its proper *channel*.' Lon. 6. Am. 3.—What has genius to do in a *channel*, which is literally the depth of a river?

' Good hopes may be entertained of those whose mind have this liberal and elegant *turn*. Many virtues may be *grafted* upon it.' Lon. 12. Am. 6 ---We can form no idea of grafting on a turn, or a tendency, which is

neither a visible, nor an intellectual object.

'As dr. Young's imagination was strong and *rich*, rather than delicate and *correct*, he sometimes gives it too loose *reins*. Hence, in his Night Thoughts, there prevails an *obscurity* and a *hardness* in his style. The metaphors are frequently too bold, and frequently too far *pursued*; the reader is *dazzled* rather than enlightened, and kept constantly on the stretch, to *comprehend* and *keep pace* with the author. We may observe how the following metaphor is *spun out*.' Lon. 313. Am. 137.----'The imagination is confounded by this mixture of literal and figurative expressions, and this rapid transition from one metaphor to another.

'*Dryads* and *Naiads*, the *genius* of the wood, and the *god* of the river, were, in men of lively imaginations, in the early ages of the world, *easily gratified* upon this turn of mind.' Lon. 316. Am. 142.---The grafting of nymphs and genii is a new mode of propagation which has never been thought of before, even by the celebrated dr. Graham; and yet our professor represents it as an *easy* process.

'Comparison is a *sparkling ornament*; and all things that sparkle, dazzle and fatigue, if they recur too often. Similies should, even in poetry, be used in moderation; but in prose writings much more; otherwise the style will become disgustingly *luscious*, and the *ornament* lose its *virtue* and *effect*.' Lon. 48. Am. 152.--We may represent similes as sparkling ornaments of style which dazzle and fatigue the reader's imagination; but we cannot at the same time, with any propriety, represent them as things unpleasing to the palate, or 'disgustingly luscious.'

'The real and proper ornaments of style are *wrought* into the *substance* of it. They flow in the same *stream* with the *current* of thought.' Lon. 56. Am. 160.—The ornaments of style are here considered as capable of being wrought into a solid *substance*; and, in the next sentence represented as a *stream* flowing *with* a *current*.

There is the same confusion of ideas in the following passages: 'In his humorous pieces, the plainness of his manner gives it a singular *edge*, and sets it off to the highest advantage. There is no *froth*, nor *affectation* in it; it *flows* without any studied preparation; and while he hardly appears to smile himself, he makes his reader laugh heartily.' Lon. 382. Am. 167. ---'Lord Shaftesbury is ever in *buskins full* of *circumlocutions*, and artificial elegance.' Lon. 397. Am. 174. ---We may say Lord Shaftesbury's writings are 'full of circumlocutions.' But if we substitute the author for his works, and introduce him in *buskins*, or in a personal character, we cannot so properly say, he is *full* of circumlocutions, as that he is *fond* of them.

'In that region which it [eloquence] occupies, it admits great scope; and to the defect of zeal and application, more than to the want of capacity and genius, we may ascribe its not having hitherto *risen higher*. It is a *field* where there is much honour yet to be reaped; it is an *instrument*, which may be employed for purposes of the highest importance.' Lon. ii. 44. Am. 238. ----Eloquence is here described as something capable of *rising*, as a *field*, and as an *instrument*; but these are representations, from which it is impossible to form any just idea.

USEFUL HINTS.

THE French have lately discovered that a stout *paper* can be made of the bark of the linden, or linn tree—Pot-ash can be made of the wood. Millions of those trees encumber the fertile lands on the waters of Susquehannah, Delaware, the two Kenahwas &c. &c.

IT is probable that *linseed oil* might be profitably manufactured into *soap*, being worth only four-pence (four-ninetieths of a dollar) per pound in Philadelphia, and much less in the interior parts of the United States—where there is less consumption of oil, and where flax-seed is too low to bear the expence of carrying it to market.

THE people of the United States, who have immense forests to clear, should establish *Glass Manufactories*, and increase them as much as possible. The labour employed to destroy the woods for the clearing of lands, at the same time that it disposes the land to culture, will serve for the productions of a very extensive object of manufacture; therefore, the utility of this destruction is of double advantage. It cannot be doubted that we shall one day be able to furnish Europe with glass-ware.

IT is said that *carriages* of the phaeton and chaise kind are now introduced into London, made entirely of *iron*, and one hundred pounds lighter than those of the ordinary sort and dimensions. They are furnished with loosening and top springs, to guard against accidents; and the inventor, an artist of Cockley, near Birmingham, has in consequence been handsomely rewarded by the king.

THERE are above 200,000 horses in Pennsylvania. If these consume a gallon and a half of grain, or cut straw and meal, per day, it amounts annually to above thirteen millions of bushels, worth at one shilling per bushel, near £.650,000. The use of oxen might easily save above half this sum yearly: besides, when worn out with labour, their flesh is valuable.—Where then is the wisdom—where the patriotism, in continuing a practice so deeply injurious?

HOPS being spontaneously produced in America their culture becomes an object of important concern to Americans. In Sweden, the stems and tendrils are prepared like hemp, of which a strong cloth is made. The sprouts from the roots are a well tasted and wholesome food, and may be eaten as salad, or boiled and used as greens.

On the manner of destroying Insects which attack Fruit-trees.—From the Paris Memoirs of Agriculture.

'MADE THOSSE having found that oil of turpentine, when applied to animals which were covered with vermin, destroyed these vermin without hurting the animal, the author of this memoir tried it on several kinds of tree-ice and other insects; all of which it killed, without hurting the trees. He then mixed some oil of turpentine with fine earth, so as to make it incorporate well, and added water, stirring it carefully till the whole was brought to a considerable degree of fluidity. In this mixture he dipped branches of fruit trees covered with insects, which were entirely destroyed by it, eggs and all, without hurting the fruit, branch or leaves. The composition may be gotten off by artificial watering, or left to be washed away by the first shower. From these experiments, he thinks that oil of turpentine may be well employed for killing various kinds of lice that infest domestic animals, and sometimes produce diseases on fruit-trees. Experiments will ascertain how far this remedy will prove efficacious in different cases.'

RECIPES.

For preventing Water from insinuating itself between the junctures of Bricks and Stones.

QUENCH quick-lime with vinegar; mix therewith of iron filing about half the quantity of the quick-lime; add half as much fresh cow-dung: work the whole well together, and it will be fit for immediate use.

For writing blue Letters on Sword-Blades.

THE following discovery to make blue letters on sword-blades, has been lately made by an American gentleman resident at Dunkirk.—Take a well polished blade, and hold it over a charcoal fire till it is blue; then, with oil colour, write such letters as you wish should appear and remain, and let them dry; then warm some strong vinegar, and pour the infusion all over the blade, which will instantly take off the blue colour: after this process a little common warm water will take off the oil colour, and the letters will appear and remain of a curious and indelible blue. The same may be done, with equal success, with a common penknife, or any other instrument.

A new-discovered Remedy for the Scurvy in the Gums.

TAKE half a pint of red sage tea; add a piece of allum the size of a large nutmeg, and as much bole ammoniac; of honey a table spoonful; the same of vinegar; set it on a slow fire, until the allum is dissolved;—wash the mouth often. If the teeth are loose, add more honey, vinegar and allum, with port wine.

The Chronicle.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

FRANCE.

THE Paris Magazine, for the month of May 1788, contains a letter from the count de Cherissy, a patriotic nobleman, who resides much in the country and is esteemed, after . r. Duhamel, one of the first experimental farmers in France—concerning the successful cultivation of the new-discovered vegetable called, by way of contrariety, the Root of Famine, from its prodigious increase. As the qualities and use of this extraordinary vegetable are but lately known here, we shall give our readers the substance of the count's letter, which may prompt some amongst our country gentlemen to encourage its growth —"I sowed" says the count "about seven bushels of the seed in a piece of land containing eleven thousand cubic feet, being two French acres, in the beginning of November. In March the growth was advanced, and I believed, that as the product was abundant, I might encrease my stock by planting a number of slips, which could well be spared. I accordingly had them cut off and set in a light sandy loam, at the distance of about 18 or 20 inches asunder: in the following month they encreased to such a degree, that I compute every single slip to have propagated fourteen fold. In June the crops were perfectly ripe and full grown; and I ordered a certain quantity mixed with mown grass to be given to my cows, which they exceedingly relished, and produced from 29 to 30 pints of our measure each, at every milking. The milk and the butter were both excellent, and entirely free from any rank or disagreeable taste. My labouring horses and mules became so sleek and well coated from this diet, mixed with their ordinary food, that they scarce could be distinguished from the best of my coach and riding cattle. About one pound of this root is sufficient to mix with beans, oats, barley, or hay at each feed, which may be given morning and evening." It does not yet appear that any sheep have been fed with this root, but there can be no doubt that a cultivation of it would be attended with the best consequence.

. 11 1788. A list of the marine forces of ingdom is now handing about, which s the following total amount: nine ates of 110 guns; five second ditto, from 80 to 94; fifty-two of 74; eleven of 64; twelve of 50 to 40 guns; eighty-seven frigates, and sixty-five sloops, all in the best condition, without including old ships.---From this list it appears, the present navy is much superior in number and condition to that of the year 1778.

20th. The chief president of the parliament of Paris, M. d'Aligre, has resigned, and M. d'Ormesson is named in his place.

The bishop of Grenoble shot himself about a fortnight ago, after having delivered one of the most patriotic speeches ever heard in that province. The reason of his committing this rash action is, that he had it printed very differently from what he had spoken; for which reason the gentlemen of the association declared him incapable of presiding over that patriotic assembly.

Nov. 9. On Thursday last the assembly of Notables took place at Versailles; and on Friday the six committees proceeded to business.

On Sunday last the deputies of the states of Provence, which had not been convoked, till last year, for an interval of 147 years, had an audience of the king.

ENGLAND.

The celebrated Herschel's discovery in April last, of the existence of volcanoes in the moon, is a subject of praise in every learned society in Europe; and the king of Prussia has, it is asserted, written a very flattering letter to that eminent astronomer.

Extract from the Nautical Almanac and Astronomical Ephemeris for 1791. Published by order of the Commissioners of Longitude.

Advertisement of the expected return of the Comet of 1532, and 1661, in the year 1783. By the Astronomer Royal.

The elements of the orbit of the comet observed by Appian in 1532, and by Hevelius in 1661, are so much alike as to have induced Dr. Halley to suppose them to be one and the same comet; and astronomers since have joined in the same opinion. Hence it should return to its perihelium on the 27th day of April, 1789: but it will probably come a few months sooner. It will first be seen in the southern parts of the heavens, if any astronomers shall watch for it in situations nearer the line, or in southern

climates, in the course of the year 1788, and probably not before September. Astronomers who may happen to be in those parts, will be enabled to direct their telescopes for discovering it is early as possible, by being furnished with the following elements of its orbit:

The perihelium distance	044851
Place of ascending node	2s. 24deg. 18min.
Inclination of the orbit to the ecliptic	32deg. 36min.
Pherihelium forwarder in the orbit than the ascending node	33deg. 28min.

Time of the perihelium in the latter end of the year 1788, or the beginning of 1789. Its motion is direct.

If it should come to its perihelium on January 1, 1789, it might be first seen in the southern parts of the world, with a good acromatic telescope, about the middle of September, towards the middle of Pisces, with 55 deg. south latitude, and 53 deg. south declination.

An Account of the Cotton-Mills in Great-Britain, and an Estimate of the Cotton-Manufacture of that Country.

One hundred and forty-three Cotton-Mills are now built and in progress in Great-Britain; of which two thirds have been erected within these five years.

To these, there are above twenty thousand hand-mills, or jennies, for spinning the yarn for the twisted yarn spun by the water-mills.

The expense of water-mills is	£.715,000
Expens. of hand-jennies, houses, buildings, and auxiliary machinery, supposed at least	285,000
	£.1,000,000

The state of the raw materials, and the progressive and astonishing increase of this manufacture, will be best exampled by what follows.

Years.	*The Cotton and Wool applied to the Manufacture was* lbs.	*When manufactured supposed to be worth*
1781	5,101,922	£.2,000,000
1782	11,336,800	3,900,000
1783	9,546,179	3,200,000
1784	11,280,238	3,250,000
1785	17,992,888	6,900,000
1786	16,151,867	6,500,000
1787	22,600,000	7,500,000

Whence it appears, that the cotton and wool applied to the hand and water machines in Great-Britain, in 1787, being 22,600,000 lbs. (worth, in the raw state, about £.2,230,000) was worth, when manufactured, £.7,500,000; yielding the immense profit, to labourers and owners of the mills and and factories, of £.5,270,000 sterling.

As the revolution that took place in Great-Britain and Ireland by the accession of king William the third, is an eventful period in the annals of Christendom, having wrought so great a change in its commercial and political system; it may not be unsatisfactory to such of our readers as are not in the habit or opportunity of such particular information, if we lay before them the state of population that existed at that period, contrasted with what it is at this day; both taken from the most approved and accurate accounts that have been published respecting the undermentioned great cities, &c. viz.

	No. of souls in 1688.	In 1788.
Lond. contained	696,000	1,100,000
Paris	488,000	800,000
Marseilles	200,000	180,000
Lyons	250,000	150,000
Naples	200,000	354,000
Rome	200,000	157,400
Amsterdam	187,000	185,000
Venice	134,000	100,000
Bourdeaux	100,000	200,000
Dublin	60,000	170,000
Rouen	66,000	100,000
Bristol	48,000	50,000
Cork	40,000	90,000
Liverpool	20,000	60,000

By which it appears, that the cities of London, Paris, Naples, Bourdeaux, Dublin, Rouen, Bristol, Cork, and the town of Liverpool, have encreased, and that Marseilles, Lyons, Rome, Amsterdam and Venice, have decayed in their population: from which circumstance, Naples from the fifth has become the third, Bourdeaux from the ninth the fourth, and Dublin from the tenth the seventh in rank, as to the number of inhabitants.

Dr. Adair (in his Philosophical Sketch of the Natural History of the human body and mind) has lately made the following curious and interesting remarks on the shortness of human life:

Of 1000 persons, 23 die in the birth; 277 from teething, convulsions, and worms; 80 from small-pox; 7 in the measles; 8 women in child-bed; 191 of the consumption, asthma, and other diseases of the breast; 150 of fevers; 12 of apoplexy and lethargy; and 41 of dropsy; omitting other diseases not so well ascertained; so only 78 of 1000 attain to what may be called old age.----

Or, if our readers chuse to take it in other point of view: of 1000 persons die within the first year, 80 in the se-

40 in the third, 24 in the fourth; and within the first eight years of life, 446, or almost one half the number are cut off by premature death.

Sickly years are from 1 in 4, or 1 in 6 or 7 to the healthy. December, January, and April, are, from observation, found to be the most sickly months, and June the most healthy in the year. January is to June as 11 to one.—*Europ. Mag.*

So different are the laws of China from those of England, that no man can be *harrassed*, even for the king's taxes, after he has begun to till the earth, *i. e.* from about the beginning of spring till the end of harvest. That wise nation puts agriculture upon the same footing that the English put their senate, and considers the man who cultivates the earth of equal importance with him who makes the laws. Swift seems to be of the same opinion when he asserts, that the man who can produce two blades of grass where only one grew before, is of more use to society than all the writer of political pamphlets that ever were published.

The plan which is said to be determined upon by government will totally stop the circulation of counterfeit copper. Each halfpenny is to contain as much metal as is intrinsically the value of one halfpenny: and the expense of coinage, &c. is to be defrayed by government. Upon calculating the expense of coining them at the Tower, and comparing that calculation with what the Birmingham people offer to do them for, it is found that a most considerable saving will be made by these old practitioners in the art of making money. They are accordingly to be employed.

Sep. 15. It is observed by an officer of rank and great military experience, that the most effectual method of preserving the health of such recruits as are sent from this country, either to Africa or the East-Indies, is to oblige them to bathe every morning as soon as they arrive in the country; and as frequently as possible afterwards, while on their march from the sea-coast to join their respective regiments.

About a month ago, on sinking a shaft in the rock of Gibralter, about 30 feet from its northern extremity, and at the depth of 120 feet from the summit of the mountain; the workmen found a great collection of bones, supposed to be those of monkies, and among them the tusks of a boar, enclosed in a hard stone. The curious account for this phenomenon by supposing that there had been formerly many crevices in the rock; into which those animals, when pursued by men, or beasts fiercer than themselves, fled for shelter; and that, owing to the consequent movement and agitation, the crazy parts would sometimes give way, and bury both the fugitives and their pursuers in one common ruin.

Oct. 10. The comet, which is expected, is a subject of general conversation in Paris; and a lapidary there has contrived a most ingenious method of determining the course of this comet mechanically, without any apparatus of instruments; and Mons. Vadault exhibits a very curious machine, which shews the revolution of the expected comet about the sun. This gentleman is a steady observer of the Newtonian hypothesis.

Some comets, from their apparent magnitude, have been supposed to be equal to some of the primary planets, and larger than the moon. The diameter of that which appeared in the year 1744, was pronounced about three times the diameter of the earth. The tails of these stars are of various lengths: one, which appeared in 1618 had a tail upwards of 100 feet long: another, which appeared in 1680, had a tail about twenty feet in length on its first appearance, but which grew to sixty and upwards: it, however, afterwards diminished very sensibly. Among some uses attributed to these phænomena, one is conjectured to be that of recruiting the sun with fresh fuel, and repairing the consumption of light by streams perpetually sent forth in every direction from that great luminary!

Translation of an official letter to Henry Zunck, esq. his Danish Majesty's consul at Liverpool, from Copenhagen.

'We can now inform you with certainty, that a truce and cessation of hostilities, from the 16th instant October, to the 13th of November next, has been concluded on at Bawha, under the sanction of the ministers from the courts of London and Berlin, between his Swedish majesty and the auxiliary forces of Denmark under the command of the prince of Hesse; and that this truce had been signed by the said prince of Hesse, to shew the well-known peaceable sentiments of her majesty, the empress of Russia, and this convention has been accepted of in sure hopes, that during this time conducive measures will be adopted to a succeeding peace.

'We give you this information, sir, that you may endeavour to dissipate any alarming fears which might have influenced any of our merchant ships.

'The Swedes had seized upon ten transports from Norway, for our army in Swe-

den; but after our claim was made, both ships and cargoes were given up immediately.

"Royal chamber of commerce, Copenhagen, 25th October, 1788.

E. G. Schimelman. C. R. Schestedt.
C. O. Lavitz.

The extensive iron works at Coalbrokedale, are now carried on to so astonishing an extent, that they pay near 10,000l sterling per week wages to their different artificers. The roads leading to and from the forges, furnaces, &c. are now laid with cast-iron grooves for the wheels; by which one horse will draw more weight than four used to do on the common road.

29. On Sunday evening Basilico, the British messenger, arrived from Berlin, with dispatches for our court: the important information has since transpired, that the king of Prussia had marched 12,000 troops into the Dutchy of Holstein; and that these are shortly to be joined by 10,000 Hanoverians.

Nov. 10. The following is an exact account of the stock purchased for government from the 2d of August, 1786, to the 22 of November, 1788.

	Stock.	Expenditure.
Cons. 3 per cent.	1,499,500	1,117,036 15 7
Red. Annuities	562 000	420,712 12 0
Old S. S. Ann.	617,400	462,986 5 0
New S. S. Ann.	421 400	314,943 139
1751 S. S. Ann.	123,000	106,270 17 6
Total. 3	243 300	2,421,450 3 10

13. Two vessels are now fitting in the river at Limehouse, to carry some of the convicts of both sexes to Dartmouth, New-Brunswick, and Carleton, in America. Only those of the best recommendation for behaviour, are, however, to go to these settlements.—*Bad are the best, we fear.*

The king lies dangerously ill, and is not expected to recover. Prayers are put up for him in all the churches.

SCOTLAND.

Kilmarnock, Oct. 28. The following instance is a proof of the increase which might arise from potatoes, if proper attention were paid to their cultivation. From a plant growing in the garden of Mr. Aitken, shoemaker of this place, 101 fine potatoes were taken. Twenty-four of these weighed, one with another, ten ounces each; eight, which were the least, were larger than plumbs, and the rest far above that size. The only attention paid to this plant was heaping earth about the stem: such a product, if not extraordinary, is certainly an ample reward for so little labour.

IRELAND.

Notice to Mariners.

Londonderry, July 15, 1788. Captain G. Stewart, of the brig Jenny, of Derry, being the 22d of July last, on his passage from Antigua, in lat. 39. 20. N. long. 46. 10. W. discovered a rock about a mile distant. An high surf prevented him from hoisting out his boat, and therefore he could make no other remark than this——that he judged the rock to be about 10 feet above the surface of the water, and about 150 yards in circumference.

Dublin, Sep. 26. Sunday morning, a sailor, stowing the gib on board a vessel coming into our harbour, from a port in the Baltic, missed his step and fell into the water, where he remained above an hour, and was taken up without any signs of life. Spirits were applied to his temples and nostrils in vain, till the captain ordered the fume of a lighted tobacco pipe to be thrown into his body. This experiment set his lungs in play, and gradually restored him. He is now perfectly recovered.

Oct. 14. A mill has lately been erected in Newcastle, in which three pair of stones are worked at the same time by the power of a *steam engine.* We hear it is intended shortly to add a fourth pair, and when completed, it is expected to be capable of grinding a quantity of corn sufficient to supply the consumption of thirty thousand people.

SPAIN.

It is said that a total abolition of the court of inquisition is positively in agitation; and a plan is forming for a more rational mode of trying ecclesiastical delinquents. These are among the efforts of the present enlightened age to dispel the mists of ignorance and superstition.

Valadolid, July, 28, 1788. While the different nations of the North seem, almost without exception, to be alarmed with wars and rumours; of wars and while some of them are actually disputing at the point of the sword *pro aris et focis,* this kingdom continues to enjoy all the blessings that can flow from a state of tranquility --blessings, of which we take every method to promote the permanence, by a sedulous culture of the long neglected arts of peace.

For this purpose, the Patriotic Society established here are indefatigable in their exertions. Last week they held their grand annual meeting, when (after having, with the assistance of the bishop, the Royal University, and many benevolent and pub-

lic spirited individuals, made good the damage which the poor inhabitants of this district sustained through the dreadful inundation which happened the 25th of last February, by furnishing them with fresh implements of husbandry, corn, furniture clothing and cash, amounting in all to 22,395 reals) they proceeded to the distribution of the prizes proposed last year. Only one, however, was awarded. It consisted of 200 reals, and fell to the lot of D. Gonzales, for his curious model of a loom, on a new construction, by which cloth may be weaved of a greater breadth than has yet been manufactured in this country. The other rewards were ordered to stand over for decision till next year, when the society agreed to give a prize of 1500 reals to the author of the most ingenious and satisfactory essay on the causes of the decline of useful plants in the neighbourhood of this city, with the means of restoring them, and of preserving those which shall remain.

The sum of 1500 reals was likewise ordered to the person who shall discover a vein of pit-coal in this province, and particularly towards the capital.

The like sum was proposed for the best paper, pointing out such manufactures as labourers in the country, and their families, may practise with most benefit, in those seasons when they cannot attend to the pursuits of agriculture, so as to prevent them from begging, or being otherwise troublesome to the community.

One thousand reals were ordered for the dyer, or person of any other description, who shall demonstrate on practical, as well as theoretical grounds, that he has discovered dyes superior in durability and colour to those now used in this city, and not inferior to such as are employed in dying stuffs in foreign countries.

A gold medal, weighing an ounce and a half, or the value of it, is to be the prize of the best written memoir on the most effectual means of preventing the women of Valadolid (without having recourse to judicial or compulsory regulations) from deserting their habitations during the months of May, June, July, August, and September, in order to work in the fields; a practice, which has been found subversive of their natural industry, detrimental to the pursuits which ought to be peculiar to their sex, and incompatible with the domestic duties they owe as wives and mothers.

On each or all of these subjects, the papers are to be addressed to D. Juan de Dios de Nuevas, and to be forwarded to him in the course of January, 1789.

Cadiz, October 15. The last accounts from Barbary mention, that two of the emperor of Morocco's sons, with a numerous army, had lately advanced near the frontiers of Algiers with an intent to penetrate into that kingdom; but the dey being informed of their march, dispatched the bey of Mascara, at the head of 60 000 of his best troops, who fell upon the Moors with such irresistible fury, that in less than three hours he dispersed and entirely defeated them, with horrid slaughter. It is said that a greater massacre never was heard of, as the Algerines made no prisoners, but put every man to the sword that fell into their hands. It is further added, that upwards of 800 heads, chiefly officers, were sent to the dey's palace, and there exposed at the gates for three days.

GERMANY.

Emperor's Head-quarters at Sakul, Sept. 23. On the 21st, before break of day, the army, being encamped near Plovi, divided into two columns; the first corps was covered by the cavalry, the grenadier corps, and four battalions of fusiliers. The second column, the corps de reserve, were followed by the enemy, who attacked them at Caransebes, and set them in general confusion; but the rear plied the Turks so well, as to keep them from doing them much damage; and killed a number of their people. Close to Caransebes the Turks attacked one of our regiments of hussars, which retreated to Caransebes. The Austrian infantry and cavalry joined the main body on the other side of Temerch, and the enemies' infantry, who hid themselves in corn-fields, advanced to Armenesch, where they set the houses in the environs; on fire but a party of our men being sent against them drove them back. Our loss is about 150 killed and wounded, and that of the enemy must be far superior.

Camp at Devor, before Turkish Novi, Sept 25. We are continuing the fire on the place, and have made a mine with four chambers, the effect of which, we hope, will fill the first ditch near the works, and thereby hasten its surrender, as the explosion we expect will be terrible in other respects. At present the place is so surrounded, that nothing can pass in or out.

Vienna, Sept. 27. Our troops in the Bannat are in a very critical situation. Vipalanka was taken by the Turks on the 19th: the corps under general Brechainville is cut off: the emperor has retired to Sankeel,

and all the passes between the mountains are abandoned, so that the way is open for the Turks into the flat country. In short, the attack of the Turks on the 14th, was of very great detriment to us.

Oct. 4. The last accounts received here from the Imperial army mention, that in their march from Illova, in the evening of the 21st of September, two columns crossing each other in the dark, and a false alarm of the approach of the enemy, gave rise to a great confusion, in which some corps of the Austrian infantry fired at each other, and the batmen and servants were struck with such a panic, that throwing their loads from their horses, and out of their carriages, they fled precipitately; so that many officers lost their baggage, a dozen regiments a part of their field equipage. The Turks harrassed the rear guard, but were vigorously repulsed, in the attacks they made upon it, and obliged to abandon three of their standards. A smart skirmish however took place, near Caransebes, in which the Austrians had 150 men killed and wounded; and some houses in that town were burnt by the Turks. The emperor continued his march on the 23d to Szakul, and on the 24th to Lugosch, where he remained on the 28th; the heavy baggage being sent on to Temeswar, without meeting any further interruption from the enemy.

Frankfort, Sept. 23. By advices from Cherson, we learn, that a seraskier, at the head of 30 000 men, had penetrated into the very camp of Prince Potemkin, where a battle, bloody and obstinate on both sides, was fought; but that at length the Turks were obliged to retire, leaving behind them upwards of six thousand killed.

The valour, courage, and intrepidity of the Ottoman troops exceed every thing that was known before: they climb up mountains, run up batteries regardless of fire, and endure every hardship with the greatest fortitude: and at Vienna they begin to fear, that the Turks will be able to penetrate so far through the Bannat, as to cause the most serious alarm and anxiety for the safety of the kingdom of Hungary.

It is computed that the emperor has lost, by sickness and the sword, since he commenced the war with the Ottomans, very near eighty thousand men.

POLAND.

Warsaw, September, 17. The Prussian envoy extraordinary has presented a note to the king and permanent council, in which he declared the pleasure of his master in the following terms: "The king will not oppose the augmentation of the Polish army, so long as it only intended to protect the frontiers of the republic; but his majesty will not permit the army to be employed against the Turks."

October, 12. To-morrow the diet will assemble for the fourth time. Their deliberations have as yet been carried on with a tranquillity little to have been expected. The only canvassed point was--how far our army should be augmented? It is at length determined that instead of increasing it to 100,000 men, as originally proposed, it shall only consist of 60,000, who, it is said, are to be paid from the revenues of the church. This last circumstance we little expected.

Nov 13. In the present assembly of the Polish diet, there has appeared only one nobleman whose voice is for war, He is the nuncio of Brzechow, and his proposition was, that they should melt their church-bells into cannon. His motion was received with universal disapprobation; and if it had not been withdrawn, would have been negatived in the usual way of that assembly, by the death of the mover!

PRUSSIA.

Merit meets with a most liberal patron in the present king of Prussia. An ingenious treatise on the mechanism of a feather being read by his majesty, he sent for the author, and made him a handsome present. His majesty then made some microscopic experiments, in consequence of what he had read, by which the wonderful care and accuracy of the deity in so small a part, are excellently illustrated. The principal manuscripts of the king's royal academic society, which were in French, are to be copied into German; and the French language is not to be used any more in any of the public offices. The German and the English languages, classically studied, are now the polite accomplishments at Berlin.

SWEDEN.

Affairs of Sweden.

As our readers may not be acquainted with the reasons that induced great numbers of officers in the king of Sweden's army to throw up their commissions, we are happy that we have it in our power to state the particulars of the business: which is much more serious, in reality, than it may appear at first sight.

These officers appear not to have been actuated by disgust to the service, or disloyalty to the king; on the contrary, they

appear to have acted under the influence of attachment to the constitution, and a regard to their own personal safety, which they thought a blind obedience to the king's orders would endanger : and the only way left to them, in their opinion, for securing their lives and property from the vengeance of violated laws, was to renounce a profession which they liked, and with it all the prospects that are dear and flattering to those whose pursuits are glory and military fame.

When the present king of Sweden, in 1772, effected a revolution in the constitution of his country, he presented to the diet of the nation a new form of government, framed by himself, or by persons commissioned by him for that purpose. The diet, under the influence of royal authority, supported by troops ready to maintain it by the point of the bayonet, assented to the new constitution, which had not originated with them.

The 48th section of the new form of government so presented to the diet, expressly declares, ' that the king shall not begin an offensive war, without the previous consent of the states of the country in diet assembled.'

The question, therefore, that must determine whether the present war carrying on by Sweden against Russia, is or is not constitutional, is simply this——Is this war offensive ?

His majesty, without calling a meeting of the states to obtain their previous consent, assembled his army, put his fleet to sea, and gave the Russians battle. The officers, who threw up their commissions after they reached Finland, could not think themselves warranted in doing so sooner ; because it was to be presumed that the king would not act unconstitutionally ; nor could the officers——who were destined merely for the defence of Finland, and not for the invasion of the Russian territory in that duchy. But when the army received orders to act offensively, and when the king's manifesto appeared, from which it was by no means evident that Russia had really been the aggressor, and that Sweden was forced into a defensive war, several officers of rank began to entertain doubts of the legality of their own conduct, in aiding the king to trample upon the constitution, and shew his contempt of the states of the nation : a meeting was held in the camp, at which many assisted, and debated the following question, which was drawn up by an old colonel, who had always been remarked for his moderation, and had never attached himself to any party in the state ---' Whether the officers, who, without any other authority than the mere will of the king, without the previous consent of the states of the nation, and even without the knowledge of the states, suffer themselves to be employed in a war that has all the appearance of being offensive on our part, at least during the present campaign---do not render themselves responsible to the states, and liable to be punished sooner or later, for their breach of the oath they had taken to maintain the constitution of their country ?'

There was no difference of opinion with respect to the illegality of an offensive war, undertaken by the king without the consent of the states : all the officers present concurred in declaring that such a war was unconstitutional, and that all those who should be aiding and assisting in carrying it on, must answer for it to their country ; the debate turned chiefly upon the matter of fact, whether the present was an offensive war or not ? Some supported the affirmative, while others maintained the negative. Those who were of the former opinion insisted, that all those who thought the war offensive were bound, in duty, to resign their commands ; and those who thought it problematical whether the war was really offensive or defensive, held it to be the safer way to resign.

The king was not apprized of what might happen at this meeting, or he would have prevented it, for it was not called *co nomine*, for discussing this subject : the assembly met for purposes of conviviality ; and by way of conversation, the legality of the war was brought under consideration ; the question was framed in the manner we have given it, and was regularly debated.

The day after the meeting, five field officers waited on his majesty and laid their commissions at his feet, at the same time assigning their reasons for such a step ; their example was soon followed by near two hundred other officers. The king was struck with the proceeding, which was totally unexpected ; however, he resolved that this conduct of the officers should not divert him from his purpose ; he assumed the appearance of firmness ; and without condescending to press any of these officers to resume their commands, he ordered the regiments to which they belonged to be mustered, and in their presence, in front of the line, he with his own hand struck their names out of the list of the army, and caused others to be inserted in their room.

But notwithstanding the appearance of

firmness which his majesty assumed on this occasion, he was never more alarmed in his life: he instantly gave up the idea of acting offensively for the present, and returned to Sweden, to prevent, if possible, the effects which the language and arguments of the officers, who left Finland before him, might have upon the minds of the people. That his apprehensions were great, appears from this circumstance, that he who had not deigned to consult the nation before he embarked in the war, gave orders immediately on his return, for the meeting of the diet; and what increases his alarm is, that the officers who laid down their commissions were not sticklers for the old constitution, but for the new one---which he had himself introduced and established, and which he was the first to violate: he dreads that all the friends to the former government will join those who condemn the present war as unconstitutional, and that a majority of the diet being thus against him, some resolutions, unpalatable to a king, will be proposed and carried.

He probably flattered himself, that the rapidity of his conquests, and the splendour of his victories, which would recover great territories torn from Sweden in the moment of her adversity, and give new verdure to her laurels, would prevent the nation from inquiring into the origin of a war, from which she derived extent of dominion, and increase of glory: but his expectations have been disappointed; he has made no figure in war, and now he has to dread that he shall be humbled in the eyes of Europe, by being reprimanded and censured by his people in full diet assembled

DENMARK.

Copenhagen, Sept. 14. The king having, on the 11th instant, notified to the different courts of Europe, his intention to send to the assistance of Russia, the succours which by treaty he is bound to furnish on requisition, the Swedish ambassador the baron de Sprengporten, delivered this day a memomorial to the chief minister of his Danish majesty---stating the king of Sweden's astonishment at the Danish declaration of the 19th of of August, recalling to mind the family connection, and the long peace that has subsisted between the two crowns, and demanding a clear and precise explanation. To this an answer was returned yesterday, expressive of his Danish majesty's determination to comply with the tenor of his declaration and his treaty with Russia, as the auxiliary of an ally; concluding with a fervent wish, that this his expected decisive answer may not prove the signal for war, the very idea of which is painful to him.'

Oct. 13. By letters from Cottenburg, it appears that a further armistice of four weeks has been agreed on between his Swedish majesty and the prince of Hesse. The king of Prussia threatens to support the Swedes if we persist.

21. A new and more conspicuous light-house has just been erected by order of this government on the island of Anhalt. It is of a cylindrical form, 50 Danish ells in height, and 32 ells in circumference; and on the summit is placed a furnace, or grate, two feet nine inches high, and five feet in diameter; so that the flame, being stronger and more than double the former altitude (which was only 22 ells) will be observed at a much greater distance. The edifice is 2500 Danish ells to the westward of the old building: it is 3100 ells from the east point of the island, and 56 ells above the surface of the water. The fire will be kindled in the new light-house on the 14th of November, at half an hour after sun-set, and from that time the old light-house will be discontinued. The Danish ell is two English feet nearly.

Elsineur, Oct. 4. Certain advice is this day received that 6000 Danish auxiliaries have already reached Udewalla, and meeting with opposition from 600 Swedes, killed ten, and made the rest prisoners; but that a truce for eight days had taken place.

RUSSIA.

Petersburg, Sept. 30, 1788. The following is an account of operations received from general Tokelly, who commands the troops of Caucasus and the Cuban.

On the 22d of august, lieutenant general Talysin having with his troops reached the border of the Cuban, he formed his camp about 17 werstes above Say, and waited for general Tokelly's arrival in the Cuban. There that officer having learned by some of the inhabbitants that two hords of Tartars, after putting their wives and children in a place of security, were preparing to form a body in the neighbourhood, he immediately detached brigadier Bergmann with three batallions of chasseurs and 3000 Cossacks, to disperse those hords before they reinforced themselves. This detachment having passed the Cuban met on the 23d instant, about 20 werstes from that river, those two hords, consisting of about 40,000. The Turks immediately fell upon our detachment, and a smart contest ensued, which lasted with great fury from four in the morning till noon, when the

enemy finding themselves compleatly beaten, fled behind an atbatis, but were dislodged and dispersed entirely. They left 800 dead on the spot, and near 2000 of their habitations were entirely destroyed by our troops, with all they contained. We had two chasseurs and 120 horses killed, and wounded. Our detachment afterwards returned safe to the camp, whence, after the junction with general Tokely, the army will march onwards to pursue its operations.

TURKEY.

Constantinople, Sept. 7. An officer is just arrived with dispatches from the grand vizier, containing advices of sundry engagements that have lately happened between the Imperialists and a powerful detachment of the Ottoman army, in each of which the latter was victorious. This detachment is commanded by Las Memich Pacha, who has already taken twelve pieces of cannon, fifteen caissons, and surrounded five hundred cuirassiers, whom, to a man, he has made prisoners of war.

WEST-INDIES.

To Merchants.

Martinico, Nov. 20. On account of the scarcity of provisions, the governor has published an ordinance allowing the introduction of flour and bread of foreign manufacture, salt provisions, and any other eatables whatever, into the ports of Fort-Royal, du Marin, de la Trinite, du Marigot, and la Rade de St. Pierre, until the 1st of March, 1789.

UNITED STATES.

NEW-HAMPSHIRE.

Portsmouth, Jan. 7, 1789. The whole number of votes returned from the several towns and places in this state, for representatives to the Congress of the United States, appears to be 15,377; but as 2563 votes are needful to a choice none has been made, the highest number polled by any candidate being 2374.

The senate have concurred with the house of representatives in appointing the hon. Paine Wingate a senator to the Congress of the United States, vice judge Bartlet resigned.

13th. The legislature have chosen, as electors of a president and vice-president of the United States,

The hon. Benjamin Bellows,
John Pickering,
Ebenezer Thomson,
John Sullivan,
John Parker.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Boston, Dec. 24, 1788. By an arret signed by the king of France, dated the 9th of October last, the importation of all foreign whale-oil and spermaceti into that kingdom is entirely prohibited.

State of *Population* in *Massachusetts* for 20 years.——There were in the year 1763, 2,40,317 souls; in 1783, 357,510. Increase in 20 years (eight of which were during the war) 117,193 souls.

Bill of *Mortality* for the town of *Salem*, from Jan. 1, 1788, to Jan. 1, 1789.

Under two years,	47	January 13
Between 2 & 10,	13	February 7
10 & 20,	5	March 18
20 & 30,	18	April 11
30 & 40,	14	May 8
40 & 50,	10	June 4
50 & 60,	5	July 9
60 & 70,	6	August 9
70 & 80,	14	September 15
80 & 90,	3	October 13
	135.	November 10
		December 12
Males, 67		135
Females, 68		
Still-born, 6		
141		

Aggregate number of *Baptisms* in the several churches, during the past year, 121.

Marriages by the respective pastors, in the Friends' Society, &c. 71 couples.

Jan. 7, 1789. Electors chosen for this state of a president and vice-president of the United States, viz.

Hon. Caleb Davis,
Samuel Philips,
Francis Dana,
William Seaver,
David Sewell,
Walter Spooner,
Moses Gill,
William Cushing,
William Shepherd,
Samuel Henshaw, esquire.

13th. A petition from a convention assembled at Portland, respecting the erection of the three eastern counties into a separate state, was read and committed.

The proprietors of the land in Conway, in which a silver mine was lately discovered, have petitioned the supreme executive to grant leave to one of the convicts, at Castle-William (and who is acquainted with mineralogy) to assist in refining and extracting the silver from the ore. It is

said that 1 cwt. of the crude ore, will produce 16 oz. of pure silver.

RHODE-ISLAND.

South-Kingston, Jan. 3. The general assembly, who met here the 27th ult. have again negatived the proposal for calling a state convention---yeas 12 : nays 34. The legislature have passed a bill to pay holders of the 4 per cent. notes the whole of the principal and interest in the paper emission, at par, on or before the first day of March next : those who neglect to claim within this period to lose their demands.

CONNECTICUT.

A *Bill* of *Mortality* for the city of *New-London*, for the year 1788.

Died---Males 12 : females 17---Tot. 29.
Born---Males 80 : females 58---Tot. 138.
Increase 109.

Hartford, Jan. 12. Representatives to the Congress of the United States chosen by the people, viz.

Hon. Jonathan Sturges,
Roger Sherman,
Benjamin Huntington,
Jonathan Trumbull, esq.
Jeremiah Wadsworth, esq.

Electors of a president and vice-president of the United States.

His excellency Samuel Huntington,
The hon. Oliver Wolcott,
Richard Law,
Mathew Griswold,
Erastus Wolcott,
Jedediah Huntington,
Thaddeus Burr.

NEW-YORK.

Dec. 23. 1788 The board of Treasury have advertised that proposals will be received by them to the 1st of February for supplying the army with the following articles of clothing, on or before the 1st September next---viz. 940 coats, 940 vests, 1180 woolen overalls, 1880 linen do. 3760 pairs of shoes, 3760 shirts, 940 stocks, 940 stock-clasps, 940 hats, 940 pairs shoe-buckles, 3760 pairs socks, 940 Blankets.

Decem. 26. By a joint ballot of both houses of the legislature, 5 delegates were chosen to represent this state in the congress for one year, or until the new constitution shall begin to operate----viz. Abraham Yates, jun. David Gelston, John Hathorn, Philip Pell, Samuel Jones.

Jan. 5. A conferrence was held between the senate and assembly, on certain amendments proposed by the senate to a bill for putting the federal constitution into operation. After debating the matter a whole day, the assembly resolved they would not agree to those amendments; and the senate resolved they would not recede : the bill was in consequence lost, and New-York can have no agency in the election of a president and vice-president of the United-States---nor can she be represented in the federal senate.

The assembly have passed a bill for electing all that part of the county of Montgomery, the soil of which was lately ceded to Massachusetts, into a new county by the name of Ontario.

Jan. 6. On Sunday sailed for Bombay the American Indiaman, capt. Jacob Sarly.

Spacious preparations are making in this city for the accommodation of the new congress, by an elegant addition to the city-hall. The walls, which are of brick, are nearly completed, ready to receive the roof. The apartment designed for the federal house of representatives is upwards of 60 feet diameter, and nearly of a circular figure. It is 35 feet high, exclusive of its concave or arched ceiling, and sustains a projecting gallery in the end, opposite the seat of the president, for the spectators. The room for the national senate is to be under the roof of the old hall, on the second story, to which the communication from the lower house will ascend by stairs. The whole of this magnificent structure, when completed, is to be comprehended under one roof, and will form one entire edifice of 150 feet long. It is supposed this building will coss about £.15000 currency.

Jan. 19. The assembly have given leave for a bill to be brought in to raise money by lottery to defray the expense of erecting the federal building—For it 30—against it 25.

Sea vessels which have arrived in the port of New-York from the 1st January. 1788, to January 1st 1789—viz. Ships, 110; Brigantines, 198; Snows, 9; Sloops, 451; Schooners, 184 : total, 952.

NEW-JERSEY.

New-Brunswick, Jan. 13. By a proclamation, it appears that the following gentlemen were this day appointed by the governor and council, according to law, electors on behalf of this state, of a president and vice-president of the United States.

Hon. David Brearly,
James Kinsey,
John Nelson,
David Moore,
John Rutherford,
Matthias Ogden.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Philadelphia, Dec. 27 1788. The following experiment of the effect of electricity on vegetation, made by a gentleman in England, may merit the attention of the curious. He planted two turneps in two boxes, each box containing 24lb. of earth: he kept them in the same exposure, and under the same circumstances----except that one was electrified twice a day, for two months; at the end of which time it it was in full growth, and bursting, weighed 6lb: the other, at the end of four months did not quite reach that weight—a strong proof that the electric fire had a remarkable power in promoting and quickning the vegetation.

Jan. 5. By the president and executive council's proclamation of this date it appears that the following gentlemen are elected the representatives for Pennsylvania, in the congress of the United-States, under the federal constitution.---viz.

Frederic Augustus Muhlenburg,
Henry Wynkoop,
Thomas Hartly,
George Clymer,
Thomas Fitzsimons,
Thomas Scott,- [*since resigned*]
Peter Muhlenburg
Daniel Heister.

DELAWARE.

Wilmington, Jan. 10. John Vining, esq. is elected the representative for this state in the congress of the United-States, and John Banning, esq. an elector of a president and vice-president.

MARYLAND.

Baltimore, Jan. 23. A general return of representatives for this state in the new Congress, and electors of a president and vice-president of the United States, viz.---

Representatives.

Joshua Seney	7725	George Gale	5456
Daniel Carroll	5819	William Smith	5415
Benj. Contee	5476	Mich. J. Stone	5154

Electors.

John Rogers	7745	A. C. Hanson	5596
George Plater	7603	Robert Smith	5455
Wm. Tilghman	5856	Philip Thomas	5454
W. Richardson	5700	Wm. Mathews	5281

VIRGINIA.

Petersburg, Dec. 18, 1788. A plan has been sometime under the consideration of our legislature for new organizing the judiciary, a work of the greatest importance to this country, and which it will require the most mature deliberation to accomplish. The district courts, with a very little alteration, will stand, it is expected, as established by an act of the last assembly.

It appears that the present legislature highly approve of a plan proposed by some gentlemen of Petersburg, for opening the navigation of Appamattox river; and that they are about passing an act to promote and encourage so important an undertaking.

AN ACT *concerning the erection of* KENTUCKY *into an independent State.*

[Passed the 9th of Dec. 1788.]

WHEREAS it is represented to this general assembly, that it is the desire of the good people in the district of Kentucky, that the same should be separated from this commonwealth whereof it is a part, and be formed into an independent member of the American confederacy, and it is judged that such a partition of the commonwealth is rendered expedient, by the remote situation of the more fertile and populous part of the said district, and by the interjacent natural impediments to a convenient and regular communication therewith.

Be it enacted by the general assembly, That in the month of May next, on the respective court days of the counties within the said district, and at the respective places of holding courts therein, representatives to continue in appointment for one year, and to compose a convention, with the powers and for the purposes hereinafter mentioned, shall be elected by the free male inhabitants of each county above the age of twenty-one years, in like manner, as delegates to the general assembly have been elected within the said district, in the proportions following: to the county of Jefferson, shall be elected five representatives; in the county of Fayette, five representatives; in the county of Nelson, five representatives; in the county of Bourbon, five representatives; in the county of Mercer, five representatives; in the county of Lincoln, five representatives; in the county of Madison, five representatives; in the county of Woodford, five representatives; and in the county of Mason five representatives; Provided, that no free male inhabitants above the age of twenty-one years shall vote in any other, except the county in which he resides. That full opportunity may be given to the good people, of exercising their right of of suffrage on an occasion so interesting to them, each of the officers holding such elections, shall continue the same from day to day, passing over Sunday, for five days including the first day, and shall cause this act to be read on each day immediately preceding the open-

ing of the election, at the door of the court-house or other convenient place. Each of the said officers shall deliver to each person duly elected a representative, a certificate of his election, and shall moreover transmit a general return to the clerk of the supreme court, to be by him laid before the convention. For every neglect of any of the duties hereby enjoined on such officer, he shall forfeit one hundred pounds, to be recovered by action of debt, by any person suing for the same. The said convention shall be held at Danville, on the twentieth day of July next, and shall and may proceed after choosing a president and other proper officers, and settling the proper rules of proceeding, to consider and determine whether it be expedient for, and be the will of, the good people of the said district, that the same be erected into an independent state, on the terms and conditions following: First; That the boundary between the proposed state and Virginia, shall remain the same, as at present separates the district from the residue of the commonwealth: second; That the proposed state shall take upon itself a just proportion of the public and domestic debt of the commonwealth: third; That all private rights and interests in land within the said district, derived from the laws of Virginia prior to such separation, shall remain valid and secure under the laws of the proposed state, and shall be determined by the laws now existing in this state: fourth; That the lands within the proposed state of non-resident proprietors, shall not in any case be taxed higher than the lands of residents, at any time prior to the admission of the proposed state to a vote by its delegates in congress, where such non-residents reside out of the United States, nor any time either before or after such admission, where such non-residents reside in this commonwealth, within which this stipulation shall be reciprocal; or where such non residents reside with any other of the United States, which shall declare the same to be recipocral within its limits, nor shall a neglect of cultivation or improvement of any land within either the proposed state or this commonwealth, belonging to non-residents, citizens of the other, subject such non-residents to forfeiture or other penalty, within the term of six years after the admission of the said state into the federal union: fifth; that no grant of land nor land warrant, to be issued by the proposed state, shall interfere with any warrant heretofore issued from the land office of Virginia, which shall be located or laid within the said district, now liable thereto, on or before the first day of september, one thousand seven hundred and ninety: sixth; that the unlocated lands within the said district, which stand appropriated by the laws of this commonwealth, to individuals or descriptions of individuals, for military or other services, shall be exempt from the disposition of the proposed state, and shall remain subject to be disposed of by the commonwealth of Virginia, according to such appropriation, until the congress of the United States shall receive the proposed state into the federal union; and thereafter the residue of all lands remaining within the limits of the said district, shall be subject to the disposition of the proposed state; saving and reserving to the officers and soldiers of the Virginia lines on state and continental establishment, their representatives and assignees, their rights to lands under the several donations of this commonwealth, who shall not be restrained or limited as to the time, in making their respective locations or completing their surveys by any thing in this act contained, nor by any act of the proposed state, without the future consent of the legislature of Virginia: seventh; that the use and navigation of the river Ohio so far as the territory of the proposed state, or the territory of the proposed state, or the territory which shall remain within the limits of this commonwealth lies thereon, shall be free and common to the citizens of the United-States: Provided however, that five members assembled shall be a sufficient number to adjourn from day to day, and to issue writs for supplying vacancies which may happen, from deaths, resignations or refusals to act: a majority of the whole shall be a sufficient number to choose a president, settle the proper rules of proceeding, authorize any number to summon a convention during the recess, and to act in all other instances where a greater number is not expressly required; two thirds of the whole shall be a sufficient number to determine on the expediency of forming the said district into an independant state, on the aforesaid terms and conditions: provided that a majority of the whole number to be elected concur therein.

And be it further enacted, that if the said convention shall approve of the erection of the said district into an independent state on the foregoing terms and conditions, they shall and may proceed to fix a day, posterior to the first day of november, one thousand seven hundred and ninety, on which the authority of this commonwealth and of its laws, under the ex-

ceptions aforesaid, shall cease and determine forever over the proposed state, and the said articles become a solid compact, mutually binding on the parties, and unalterable by either, without the consent of the other: Provided however, that prior to the first day of september, one thousand seven hundred and ninety, the congress of the United-States shall assent to the erection of the said district into an independent state, and shall agree, that the proposed state shall, immediately after the day to be fixed as aforesaid, posterior to the first day of september, one thousand seven hundred and ninety, or at some convenient time future thereto, be admitted into the federal union. And to the end, that no period of anarchy may happen to the good people of the proposed state, it is to be understood, that the said convention shall have authority to take the necessary provisional measures for the election and meeting of a convention, at some time prior to the day fixed for the determination of the authority of this commonwealth, and of its laws over the said district, and posterior to the first day of september, one thousand seven hundred and ninety aforesaid with full power and authority to frame a fundamental constitution of government for the proposed state, and to declare what laws shall be in force therein, until the same shall be abrogated or altered by the legislative authority acting under the constitution, so to be framed and established: Provided that no act of the said convention, or of the legislature of the proposed state, shall invalidate or affect the rights, titles or interests of any persons or description of persons hereinbefore secured or granted. This act shall be transmitted by the executive, to the representatives of of this commonwealth in congress, who are hereby instructed, to use their endeavours to obtain from congress a speedy act to the effect above specified.

Extract of a letter from *Green-County*, dated December 1, 1788.

'On the 21st of last month, a large body of the enemy, not less than 200, attacked Sharrel's station late in the evening. Sevier that day, with 40 horsemen, was out ing and came on the Indians' tail, ma the inhabitants: he imm di nd opportunely arrived be e Indians were in the act awing up his troop in anged his men, declaring ve the garrison or fall at a signal given, he charged the enemy while they were employed in burning some out-buildings, and obliged them to retire—in consequence of which the garrison was relieved. This exploit was performed under cover of the night; and, conformably to Sevier's good fortune, not a man of his party was hurt. Some of the Indians were wounded, as a good deal of blood was seen next day on the ground.

The Indians have lately killed two men on this side of French Broad, and one on the north side of Holstein; so that it seems the Cherokees do not mean to stop at the line fixed by treaty, but to carry on war against the whole state.'

We hear that the North-Carolina assembly have voted an army of 1500 men, to be raised, to chastise the Indians.

NORTH-CAROLINA.

An account of the *exports* from Port-Roanoak, commencing the 8th day of September, 1787, and ending the 8th of March, 1788. being six months, viz.---

27,436 barrels naval stores; 193,000 pipe-staves; 570,670 hhd. staves; 460,020 barrel-staves; 3,707,000 shingles; 123,700 bushels Indian corn; 5,163 bushels black-eyed peace; 11,080 lbs. bacon; 595 hhds. tobacco; 500 bushels flax-seed; 24 barrels spirits turpentine; 124 barrels pork; 1190 hides; 4962 barrels fish; 2000 feet oars; 700 otter-skins; 1200 deer-skins; 1200lbs. snake-root; 3610 lbs. bees-wax.

SOUTH-CAROLINA.

Charleston, Oct 21, 1788 The intendant presented a petition signed by 434 citizens of Charleston, to the assembly, praying that no further legislative interference may take place in contracts, without having been first considered with the most serious attention. He professed an inclination always cheerfully to comply with the voice of his constituents; but on this occasion he felt a singular pleasure in laying before the house a petition in their behalf, which spoke the voice of REASON, OF JUSTICE, AND TRUE POLICY.

The house received a letter from the vice-consul of France, stating that the king his master understood that the public debt of South-Carolina amounted to 39,04[illegible] dollars, with interest; that payment had been ordered in four instalments; and that the king was much surprized at the little attention paid to their engagements, but was willing to impute the delay to a deficiency in the revenue: his consul was therefore directed to offer to the legislature an option, either to draw on Paris, payable

in six months, or to pay immediately in the paper medium, with an allowance for the difference of exchange ----Referred to a committee.

A letter from the British consul to the governor, was also received, complaining that the valuation bill now pending militated with the 4th article of the treaty of peace. After a lengthy debate, ordered to lie on the table.

Dec. 3. Monday evening arrived here the ship Irish Volunteer, captain Johnson, in 8 weeks from Larne, with 360 passengers, in good health.

GEORGIA.

Savannah, Nov. 10. The commissioners appointed to treat with the Creek Indians have received from Mr. M'Gillivray, their leader, an answer to the commissioners' letter, which proposed to postpone the holding a treaty till spring; in which he assures them their reasons, are perfectly satisfactory to him, and that he will observe the truce until that time; but for any infractions of which, he says, satisfaction will then be expected.

Augusta, 24th. *The Legislature of this state having, on the 30th January last resolved "to nominate three fit and discreet persons from each county, to be convened at Augusta as soon as official information was received of nine states having adopted the federal constitution, to amend the constitution of this state—A convention accordingly assembled, and on this day agreed to the following, as*

The CONSTITUTION *of the State of Georgia.*

"ARTICLE I.

Section I. "THE legislative power shall be vested in two separate and distinct branches, to wit, a senate and house of representatives, to be styled "the general assembly."

"Section II. The senate shall be elected on the first Monday in october in every third year, until such day of election be altered by law, and shall be composed of one member from erch county, chosen by the electors thereof, and shall continue for the term of three years.

"Section III. No person shall be a member of the senate who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-eight years, and who shall not have been nine years a citizen of the United-States, and three years an inhabitant of this state, previously to his election; and who shall not be an inhabitant of that county for which he is elected; and who shall not possess three hundred acres of land in his own right, within this state, and other species of property to the amount of two hundred and fifty pounds sterling.

"Section IV. The senate shall elect, by ballot, a president out of their own body.

"Section V. The senate shall have solely the power to try all impeachments.

"Section VI. The election of members for the house of representatives shall be annual, on the first Monday in october, until such day of election be altered by law, and shall be composed of members from each county in the following proportions: Camden, two; Glyn, two; Liberty, four; Chatham, five; Effingham, two; Burke, four; Richmond, four; Wilkes, five; Washington, two: Green, two; and Franklin, two.

"Section VII. No person shall be a member of the house of representatives who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-one years, and have been seven years a citizen of the United-States and two years an inhabitant of this state, and an inhabitant of the county for which he is elected; and who shall not possess two hundred acres of land in his own right, and other species of property to the amount of two hundred and fifty pounds sterling.

"Section VIII. The house of representatives shall choose their speaker and other officers.

"Section IX. They shall have solely the power to impeach all persons who have been or may be in office.

"Secion X. No person holding a military commission or office of profit under this or the united states, or either of them, (except justices of the peace and officers of the militia) shall be allowed to take his seat as a member of either branch of the general assembly: nor shall any senator or representavive be ellected to any office of profit which shall be erected during his appointment.

"Section XI. The meeting of the general assembly shall be annual, on the fifth monday in november, until such day of meeting be altered by law.

"Section XII. One third of the members of each branch shall have power to proceed to business; but a smaller number may ajourn from day to day, and compel the attendance of their members in such manner as each house may perscribe

"Section XIII. Each house shall be judges of the elections, returns lifications of its own membe or to expel or puniſh for our.

"Section XIV. No sentative shall be liable to

ring his attendance on the general assembly, or for a reasonable time in going thereto or returning home, except it be for treason, felony, or breach of the peace: nor shall any member be liable to answer for any thing spoken in debate in either house, or in any court or place elsewhere.

"Section XV. The members of the senate and house of representatives, shall take the following oath or affirmation: "I A. B. do solemnly swear (or affirm, as the case may be) that I have not obtained my election by bribery or other unlawful means; and that I will give my vote, on all questions that will come before me, as a senator or representative, in such manner as in my judgment will best promote the good of this state; and that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the same, and to the utmost of my power observe, support and defend, the constitution thereof."

"Section XVI. The general assembly shall have power to make all laws and ordinances which they shall deem necessary and proper for the good of the state, which shall not be repugnant to this constitution.

"Section XVII. They shall have power to alter the boundaries of the present co[illegible] and to lay off new ones, as well [illegible] counties already laid off, as other territory belonging to [illegible] When a new county or coun[illegible]e laid off, out of any of counties, such new coun[illegible]s shall have their representa[illegible]oned out of the representa- county or counties out of [illegible]hey shall be laid out; and, county shall be laid off in [illegible]tory belongnig to the state, [illegible]ll have a number of repre[illegible]eeding three, to be regu[illegible] by the general assembly. [illegible]. No clergyman of any be a member of the ge-

C L E II.

[illegible]e executive power shall [illegible]enor, who shall hold [illegible]he term of two years, [illegible]in the following manner. The house of representa- [illegible] second day of their the first and in every , vote by ballot for [illegible]ll make a list, con- [illegible]he persons voted for, of votes for each per- speaker shall sign in [illegible] house, and deliver it [illegible]te: and the senate proceed by bal-

lot, to elect one of the three persons having the highest number of votes; and the person having a majority of the votes of the senators present shall be the governor.

"Section III. No person shall be eligible to the office of governour, who shall not have been a citizen of the United States twelve years, and an inhabitant of this state six years, and who hath not attained to the age of thirty years, and who does not possess five hundred acres of land in his own right, within this state, and other species of property to the amount of one thousand pounds sterling.

"Section IV. In case of the death, resignation, or disability of the governour, the president of the senate shall exercise the executive powers of government, until such disability be removed, or until the next meeting of the general assembly.

"Section V. The governour shall, at stated times, receive for his services, a compensation which shall neither be encreased nor diminished, during the period for which he shall be elected; neither shall he receive, within that period, any other emolument from the United States, or any of them, or from any foreign power. Before he enters on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation: "I do solemnly swear (or affirm, as the case may be) that I will faithfully execute the office of governor of the state of Georgia; and will, to the best of my abilities, preserve, protect and defend the said state, and cause justice to be executed in mercy therein, according to the constitution and laws of the same."

"Section VI. He shall be commander in chief in and over the state of Georgia, and of the militia thereof.

"Section VII. He shall have power to grant reprieves for offences against the state, except in cases of impeachment; and to granr pardons in all cases after conviction, except for treason or murder; in which cases he may respite the execution, and make a report thereof to the next general assembly, by whom a pardon may be granted.

"Section VIII. He shall issue writs of election, to fill up all vacancies that happen in the senate or house of representatives; and shall have power to convene the general assembly on extraordinary occasions; and shall give them from time to time information of the state of the republic, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he may deem necessary and expedient.

"Section IX. In case of disagreement between the senate and house of represen-

tatives, with respect to the time to which the general assembly shall adjourn, he may adjourn them to such time as he may think proper.

" Section X. He shall have the revision of all bills passed by both houses, before the same shall become laws; but two-thirds of both houses may pass a law, notwithstanding his dissent; and if any bill should not be returned by the governor within five days after it hath been presented to him, the same shall be a law, unless the general assembly, by their adjournment, should prevent its return.

" Section XI. The great seal of the state shall be deposited in the office of the secretary, and it shall not be affixed to any instrument of writing without it be by order of the governour or the general assembly; and the general assembly may direct the great seal to be altered.

" ARTICLE III.

" Section I. A superior court shall be held in each county twice in every year, in which shall be tried, and brought to final decision, all causes civil and criminal, except such as may be subject to a federal court, and such as may by law be referred to inferior jurisdictions.

" Section II. The general assembly shall point out the mode of correcting errors and appeals, which shall extend as far as to empower the judges to direct a new trial by jury within the county where the action originated, which shall be final.

Section III. Courts merchant shall be held as heretofore, subject to such regulations as the general assembly may by law direct.

" Section IV. All causes shall be tried in the county where the defendant resides, except in cases of real estate, which shall be tried in the county where such estate lies, and in criminal cases, which shall be tried in the county where the crime shall be committed.

" Section V. The judges of the superior court, and attorney general, shall have a competent salary established by law, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office; and shall hold their commissions for the term of seven years.

' ARTICLE IV.

" Section I. The electors of the members of both branches of the general assembly shall be citizens and inhabitants of this state, possessed in their own right of a taxable property of the value of fifty pounds sterling, and shall have attained to the age of twenty one years, and have paid tax in the county for the year preceding the election, and shall have resided six months within this state.

" Section II. All elections shall be by ballot, and the house of representatives, in all appointments of state officers, shall vote for three persons, and a list of the persons having the highest number of votes shall be signed by the speaker, and sent to the senate; which shall, from such list, determine, by a majority of their votes, the officers elected; except militia officers and the secretaries of the governour, who shall be appointed by the governour alone, under such regulations and restrictions as the general assembly may prescribe. The general assembly may vest the appointment of inferior officers in the governor alone, the courts of justice, or in such other manner as they may by law establish.

" Section III. Freedom of the press, and trial by jury, shall remain inviolate.

" Section IV. All persons shall be entitled to the writ of habeas corpus in such manner as the general assembly may by law direct.

" Section V. All persons shall have the free exercise of religion, without being obliged to contribute to the support of any religious profession but their own.

" Section VI. Estates shall not be entailed; and when a person dies intestate, leaving a wife and children, the wife shall have a child's share, or the dower, at her option: if there be no wife, the estate shall be equally divided among their children and their legal representatives of the same degree. The distribution of all intestate estates may be regulated

" Section VII. At the general election for members of assembly in 1794, the electors in each county elect a number of persons to represent in a convention, for the purpose into consideration the alterations ry to be made in this constitution shall be the same number in such county is then entitled of representatives, who shall time and place as the general appoint; and if two thirds number should meet shall proceed to agree on and amendments as they per: Provided, that after have concurred to proceed to amendments, a majority of the particulars of such mendments.

" Section VIII. This take effect, and be in force monday in october next after of the same; and the legislature authorized to alter the time the superior courts, so as not interfere with the in the respective counties of the first general

WESTERN TERRITORY.

Extract of a letter, dated Fort-Harmar, November 20, 1788.

" A party of soldiers will in about twenty days take possession of the old fort near the mouth of the Great Miami, in order to protect Judge Symmes' intended settlement, and those of Kentucke.

" Annexed is a list of souls, &c. which have pased this garrison from October, 1788, to the 24th November, 1788, viz. 18,370 souls---7986 horses---2472 cows; 1110 sheep; 967 boats: 646 waggons.

MARRIAGES.

MASSACHUSETTS.——At Boston, *mr. Joseph Lovering, jun. to miss Nancy Phillips*——*mr. Samuel Turell to miss Polly Cutter*---*mr. Thomas Perkins, merchant, to miss Charlotte Appleton, daughter of Nathaniel Appleton, esq.*

At Malden, *dr. Boucher Leonard, of Boston, to miss Sarah Barnett.*

At Taunton, *mr. William Clap to miss Sally Smith.*

At Gloucester, *mr. Peter Leroy to miss Susannah Hol nd---aft. Benjamin Foster to misss Polly Ingersoll.*

[illegible]E-ISLAND.——At Providence, *mr. [illegible]rce to miss Polly West, daughter of [illegible] West, esq.---mr. Calvin Wheaton to [illegible]h Charlotte Hopkins---mr. William [illegible]ranston, to miss Amy Clark, daughter of Daniel Clark.*

[illegible]-YORK.——At Westchester, *mr. [illegible], of this place, to miss Hannah [illegible]ughter of mr. Norris Lawrence, [illegible]g-Island.*

[illegible]ngdale, *near New-York, the hon. [illegible]on, delegate in congress from [illegible] to miss Maria Apthorp, daughter [illegible] Apthorp, esq.*

[illegible], *mr. Azarias Williams, mer-[illegible] Warner, daughter of mr. [illegible]r. James Dunlap, merchant, [illegible]ffe---mr. Nathaniel Barrett, [illegible] Dougall, relict of the late [illegible]all.*

[illegible]*ames Van Ingen, merchant,*

[illegible]*George Fleming, of New-[illegible]Yelverton---general Alli-[illegible]widow of the late rev. [illegible]hill.*

[illegible]—At Philadelphia, [illegible]*of the young ladies' [illegible]miss Jane Neely, of*

[illegible]—At Baltimore, *mr. Na-[illegible]s Catherine Welsh.*

VIRGINIA.——At Richmond, *mr. William H. Smith to miss Elizabeth Crouch.*

Deaths.

NEW-HAMPSHIRE.——At Gilmantown, *mr. Thomas Taylor, by the fall of a tree—mr. John Nelson, formerly of Portsmouth.*

At Portsmouth, *miss Polly Purcell.*

At Hadley, *mr. Windsor Smith.*

MASSACHUSETTS.——At Boston, *mrs. Hannah Thwing, wife of capt. Nathaniel Thwing—mr. Thomas Mullen, aged 80—mr. Thomas Sargent, aged 83—mrs. Fanny Dissmore—mr. Lemuel Stetson—mrs. Experience Good—mrs. Ruth Soper, aged 92.*

At Hopkinton, *the rev. Elijah Fitch.*

At Brookfield, *mr. Cyprian Rice, aged 97.*

At Haverhill, *mrs. Sawyer.*

At Salem, *miss Abigail Downing—mrs. Rachel Ward, wife of mr. Ebenezer Ward—capt. Samuel Carroll—mr. Joseph Britton.*

At Danvers, *mrs. Lydia Kettell, wife of mr. John Kettell.*

At Springfield, *mrs Rebecca Bliss, aged 91.*

At West-Springfield, *mrs. Jane Ashley, aged 88.*

At Rehoboth, *mr. Samuel Fuller, aged 87.*

At Keene, *mrs. Beuler Wilder, wife of mr. Abijah Wilder.*

At Lancaster, *Josiah Wilder, esq.*

At Gloucester, *mrs. Martha Elwell.*

RHODE-ISLAND.——At Providence, *miss Marcy Sheldon, daughter of the late capt. Joseph Sheldon.*

At Patuxet, *capt. Christopher Smith.*

CONNECTICUT.——At New-Haven, *suddenly, mrs. Amelia Jarvis, wife of mr. James Jarvis of New-York, in the 24th year of her age.*

At Preston, *mrs. Rebecca Hart, consort of the rev. Levi Hart.*

At New-London, *mrs. Rogers, wife of mr. John Rogers.*

At East-Haddam, *capt. Samuel Gates.*

At Millington, *the hon. Joseph Spencer, one of the council of this state.*

NEW-YORK.——At New-York, *mrs. Diana Rapalje, formerly of Brooklyn, Long-Island, aged 92.*

NEW-JERSEY.——At Trenton, *Samuel Tucker, esq.—dr. Cowell.*

At Newark, *mrs. Ann Van Zandt, relict of the late mr. Jacobus Van Zandt, of the city of New-York.*

At Bloomsbury, *near Trenton, mrs. Mary Sayre, relict of the rev. John Sayre.*

PENNSYLVANIA.——At Philadelphia, *miss Christiana Civil Schlosser, daughter of George Schlosser, esq.—mr. Benjamin Hawkins,*

a native of England—mrs. Sarah Dawes, wife of Abijah Dawes—mrs. Hannah Fisher, wife of mr. James Custner—mr. John Wistar, merchant—capt. Bedkin.

MARYLAND.—At Cambridge, *Robert Goldsborough, esq.*

At Chatsworth, *the seat of George Lux, esq. mrs. Abigail Falls, wife of dr. Moore Falls, of Petersburg, Virginia*

VIRGINIA.—*Thomas Nelson, esq. of York, formerly governor of this commonwealth.*

At Petersburgh, *mr. Abraham Eustis and mr. Gaven Brown, merchants, late of Boston.*

At Fredericksburg, *mr. Samuel Abbot, merchant.*

At Williamsburg, *mrs. Galt, consort of dr. Galt—mrs. Mary Pasteur, relict of mr. Blovet Pasteur—mrs Mary Foss.*

SOUTH-CAROLINA —— At Charleston, *Henry Pendleton, esq. senior judge of the court of common pleas.*

GEORGIA.—At Augusta, *Samuel Elbert, esq. brigadier-general in the late armies of the United States, and vice-president of the cincinnati in this state; Seth John Cuthbert, esq.*

ABROAD.

At Paris, *the marquis de Chastellux.*

In Portugal, *the prince of Brazil, heir apparent to the crown.*

In London, *the rt. hon. Susannah lady viscountess Fane, relict of Charles viscount Fane, of the kingdom of Ireland. Her ladyship actually wrote, and superintended the press, while they were printing, those anecdotes respecting herself, which are introduced in the celebrated novel of Peregrine Pickle: and which, in beauty of composition, are so far superior to the rest of that work Dr. Smollet received a very handsome reward for inserting them, but had no share whatever in preparing them for the public eye. Her life afforded a melancholy instance of the miseries inseparable from a misapplication of superior talents and elegant accomplishments. To the fate of this lady Johnson has a beautiful allusion in his 'Vanity of human wishes:'*

'*Yet* Fane *could tell what ills from beauty spring,*
'*And* Sedley *curs'd the form that pleas'd a king.*'

THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR OCTOBER, 1791.

BY A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

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PHILADELPHIA:

PRINTED, FOR THE PROPRIETORS, BY *WILLIAM YOUNG*, BOOKSELLER, No. 52, SECOND-STREET, THE CORNER OF CHESNUT-STREET.

To CORRESPONDENTS.

WE are apprehenſive that ſome of the *metaphyſical eſſays*, ſigned L. though ingenious and well written, would not appear ſufficiently intereſting to the *generality* of our readers. Beſides, the inſertion of ſuch lengthy performances would, for ſeveral months, preclude, in a great degree, that *variety*, which is never to be loſt ſight of in the management of a periodical miſcellany. The author, however, has our thanks; and ſhould he deem it conſiſtent with his views and intereſt to publiſh his eſſays, in a ſmall volume, we are diſpoſed to think that their merit would recommend them to the notice of many judicious readers, who have leiſure, and a taſte for ſpeculative ſcience.

Sidney's manuſcript will be returned, when called for. Objects which can intereſt only an individual ſtate are too limited for the plan of this work. On *general* or *national* politics, the author's communications would be very acceptable.

The piece ſigned *A Farmer* appears to contain ſome uſeful obſervations; but, owing to the badneſs of the ink, it is, in ſome parts, not legible.

Therſites ſeems to have miſtaken *profaneneſs* for *wit*.

The *biographical ſketches*, mentioned in J. Ws. letter, never came to hand. We requeſt to be favoured with a copy by poſt.

Clericus is a very expert reaſoner; but theological controverſy forms no part of the plan of the Aſylum.

The judicious and friendly *hints* of *A Subſcriber* ſhall be attended to, as far as the *improvements* he ſuggeſts can be carried into effect. His literary aid is ſolicited.

We requeſt an interview with the author of *Portraits from the life*.

Altamont has employed much time and labour upon a ſubject undeſerving of either. It is undoubtedly, as our correſpondent obſerves, "noble to pity the erring child of mortality, and to receive, with open arms, the unfortunate wanderer, when ſtriving to regain the loſt path of virtue;" but it is ſurely very wrong to exhibit a vicious character in an amiable point of view, and to remove all diſtinction between virtue and its oppoſite. Our correſpondent's hero might well have a claim upon our *pity*; but, it is not by artfully gloſſing over his offences that he can be entitled to a ſhare in our *eſteem*. In order to this, he muſt appear to be truly virtuous, which he never can, while he endeavours to palliate conduct that ought to excite abhorrence in every virtuous breaſt.—In drawing the character of *Henry*, our correſpondent ſeems to have copied ſome traits from that of *Werter*, and ſome from that of Sheridan's *Charles*—Two portraits unworthy of his imitation!—His pathetic and elegant pen might, in our opinion, be much more uſefully employed.

Many *poetical* productions, of merit, are unavoidably omitted. We ſhall endeavour to diſcharge our arrears to our much-eſteemed correſpondent D, very ſoon. The favours of our other poetical correſpondents will not be forgotten.

THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR OCTOBER, 1791.

ACCOUNT *of the* DISTINCTION *of* RANKS, SEPARATION *of* PROFESSIONS, *and* POLITICAL CONSTITUTIONS *of* INDIA.

[*From the Appendix to Dr.* ROBERTSON'S *Hiſtorical Diſquiſition concerning* INDIA.]

FROM the moſt ancient accounts of India we learn, that the diſtinction of ranks and ſeparation of profeſſions were completely eſtabliſhed there. This is one of the moſt undoubted proofs of a ſociety conſiderably advanced in its progreſs. Arts in the early ſtages of ſocial life are ſo few and ſo ſimple, that each man is ſufficiently maſter of them all, to gratify every demand of his own limited deſires. A ſavage can form his bow, point his arrows, rear his hut, and hollow his canoe, without calling in the aid of any hand more ſkilful than his own. But when time has augmented the wants of men, the productions of art become ſo complicated in their ſtructure, or ſo curious in their fabric, that a particular courſe of education is requiſite towards forming the artiſt to ingenuity in contrivance and expertneſs in execution. In proportion as refinement ſpreads, the diſtinction of profeſſions increaſes, and they branch out into more numerous and minute ſubdiviſions. Prior to the records of authentic hiſtory, and even before the moſt remote æra to which their own traditions pretend to reach, this ſeparation of profeſſions had not only taken place among the natives of India, but the perpetuity of it was ſecured by an inſtitution which muſt be conſidered as the fundamental article in the ſyſtem of their policy. The whole body of the people was divided into four orders or caſts. The members of the firſt, deemed the moſt ſacred, had it for their province, to ſtudy the principles of religion; to perform its functions; and to cultivate the ſciences. They were the prieſts, the inſtructors, and philoſophers of the nation. The members of the ſecond order were entruſted

with the government and defence of the ſtate. In peace they were its rulers and magiſtrates, in war they were the ſoldiers who fought its battles. The third was compoſed of huſbandmen and merchants; and the fourth of artiſans, labourers and ſervants. None of theſe can ever quit his own caſt, or be admitted into another. The ſtation of every individual is unalterably fixed; his deſtiny is irrevocable; and the walk of life is marked out, from which he muſt never deviate. This line of ſeparation is not only eſtabliſhed by civil authority, but confirmed and ſanctioned by religion; and each order or caſt is ſaid to have proceeded from the Divinity in ſuch a different manner, that to mingle and confound them would be deemed an act of moſt daring impiety. Nor is it between the four different tribes alone that ſuch inſuperable barriers are fixed; the members of each caſt adhere invariably to the profeſſion of their forefathers. From generation to generation, the ſame families have followed, and will always continue to follow, one uniform line of life.

Such arbitrary arrangements of the various members which compoſe a community, ſeems, at firſt view, to be adverſe to improvement either in ſcience or in arts; and, by forming around the different orders of men artificial barriers, which it would be impious to paſs, tends to circumſcribe the operations of the human mind within a narrower ſphere than nature has allotted to them. When every man is at full liberty to direct his efforts towards thoſe objects and that end which the impulſe of his own mind prompts him to prefer, he may be expected to attain that high degree of eminence to which the uncontrouled exertions of genius and induſtry naturally conduct. The regulations of Indian policy, with reſpect to the different orders of men, muſt neceſſarily, at ſome times, check genius in its career, and confine to the functions of an inferior caſt, talents fitted to ſhine in an higher ſphere. But the arrangements of civil government are made, not for what is extraordinary, but for what is common; not for the few, but for the many. The object of the firſt Indian legiſlators was to employ the moſt effectual means of providing for the ſubſiſtence, the ſecurity, and happineſs of all the members of the community over which they preſided. With this view they ſet apart certain races of men for each of the various profeſſions and arts neceſſary in a well-ordered ſociety, and appointed the exerciſe of them to be tranſmitted from father to ſon in ſucceſſion. This ſyſtem, though extremely repugnant to the ideas which we, by being placed in a very different ſtate of ſociety, have formed, will be found, upon attentive inſpection, better adapted to attain the end in view, than a careleſs obſerver is, on the firſt view, apt to imagine. The human mind bends to the law of neceſſity, and is accuſtomed, not only to accommodate itſelf to the reſtraints which the condition of its nature, or the inſtitutions of its country, impoſe, but to acquieſce in them. From his entrance into life, an Indian knows the ſtation allotted to him, and the functions to which he is deſtined by his birth. The objects which relate to theſe are the firſt that preſent themſelves to his view. They occupy his thoughts, or employ his hands; and, from his earlieſt years, he is trained to the habit of doing with eaſe and

pleaſure, that which he muſt continue through life to do. To this may be aſcribed that high degree of perfection conſpicuous in many of the Indian manufactures; and though veneration for the practices of their anceſtors may check the ſpirit of invention, yet, by adhering to theſe, they acquire ſuch an expertneſs and delicacy of hand, that Europeans with all the advantages of ſuperior ſcience, and the aid of more complete inſtruments, have never been able to equal the exquiſite execution of their workmanſhip. While this high improvement of their more curious manufactures excited the admiration, and attracted the commerce of other nations, the ſeparation of profeſſions in India, and the early diſtribution of the people into claſſes, attached to particular kinds of labour, ſecured ſuch abundance of the more common and uſeful commodities, as not only ſupplied their own wants, but miniſtered to thoſe of the countries around them.

To this early diviſion of the people into caſts, we muſt likewiſe aſcribe a ſtriking peculiarity in the ſtate of India; the permanence of its inſtitutions, and the immutability in the manners of its inhabitants. What now is in India, always was there, and is likely ſtill to continue: neither the ferocious violence and illiberal fanaticiſm of its Mahomedan conquerors, nor the power of its European maſters, have effected any conſiderable alteration. The ſame diſtinctions of condition take place, the ſame arrangements in civil and domeſtic ſociety remain, the ſame maxims of religion are held in veneration, and the ſame ſciences and arts are cultivated. Hence, in all ages, the trade with India has been the ſame; gold and ſilver have uniformly been carried thither in order to purchaſe the ſame commodities with which it now ſupplies all nations; and from the age of Pliny to the preſent times, it has been always conſidered and execrated as a gulf which ſwallows up the wealth of every other country, that flows inceſſantly towards it, and from which it never returns. According to the accounts which I have given of the cargoes anciently imported from India, they appear to have conſiſted of nearly the ſame articles with thoſe of the inveſtments in our own times; and whatever difference we may obſerve in them ſeems to have ariſen, not ſo much from any diverſity in the nature of the commodities which the Indians prepared for ſale, as from a variety in the taſtes, or in the wants, of the nations which demanded them.

Another proof of the early and high civilization of the people of India, may be deduced from conſidering their political conſtitution and form of government.

In whatever region of the earth there has been an opportunity of obſerving the progreſs of men in ſocial life, they appear at firſt in ſmall independent tribes or communities. Their common wants prompt them to unite; and their mutual jealouſies, as well as the neceſſity of ſecuring ſubſiſtence, compel them to drive to a diſtance every rival who might encroach on thoſe domains which they conſider as their own. Many ages elapſe before they coaleſce, or acquire ſufficient foreſight to provide for the wants, or ſufficient wiſdom to conduct the affairs, of a numerous ſociety. Even under the genial climate, and in the rich ſoil of India, more favourable perhaps to the union and increaſe of the human ſpecies than any other part of the

globe, the formation of ſuch extenſive ſtates, as were eſtabliſhed in that country when firſt viſited by Europeans, muſt have been a work of long time; and the members of them muſt have been long accuſtomed to exertions of uſeful induſtry.

Though monarchical government was eſtabliſhed in all the countries of India to which the knowledge of the ancients extended, the ſovereigns were far from poſſeſſing uncontrouled or deſpotic power. No trace, indeed, is diſcovered there of any aſſembly or public body the members of which, either in their own right, or as repreſentatives of their fellow-citizens, could interpoſe in enacting laws, or in ſuperintending the execution of them. Inſtitutions deſtined to aſſert and guard the rights belonging to men in a ſocial ſtate, how familiar ſoever the idea may be to the people of Europe, never formed a part of the political conſtitution in any great Aſiatic kingdom. It was to different principles that the natives of India were indebted for reſtrictions which limited the exerciſe of regal power. The rank of individuals was unalterably fixed, and the privileges of the different caſts were deemed inviolable. The monarchs of India, who are all taken from the ſecond of the four claſſes formerly deſcribed, which is intruſted with the functions of government and the exerciſe of war, behold among their ſubjects an order of men far ſuperior to themſelves in dignity, and ſo conſcious of their own pre-eminence, both in rank and in ſanctity, that they would deem it degradation and pollution, if they were to eat of the ſame food with their ſovereign. Their perſons are ſacred, and even for the moſt heinous crimes they cannot be capitally puniſhed; their blood muſt never be ſhed. To men in this exalted ſtation monarchs muſt look up with reſpect, and reverence them as the miniſters of religion, and the teachers of wiſdom. On important occaſions, it is the duty of ſovereigns to conſult them, and to be directed by their advice. Their admonitions, and even their cenſures, muſt be received with ſubmiſſive reſpect. This right of the Brahmins to offer their opinion with reſpect to the adminiſtration of public affairs was not unknown to the ancients; and in ſome accounts preſerved in India of the events which happened in their own country, princes are mentioned, who, having violated the privileges of the caſts, and diſregarded the remonſtrances of the Brahmins, were depoſed by their authority, and put to death.

While the ſacred rights of the Brahmins oppoſed a barrier againſt the encroachments of regal power on one hand, it was circumſcribed on the other by the ideas which thoſe who occupied the higheſt ſtations in ſociety entertained of their own dignity and privileges. As none but the members of the caſt next in rank to that which religion has rendered ſacred, could be employed in any function of the ſtate, the ſovereigns of the extenſive kingdoms anciently eſtabliſhed in India, found it neceſſary to entruſt them with the ſuperintendence of the cities and provinces too remote to be under their own immediate inſpection. In theſe ſtations they often acquired ſuch wealth and influence, that offices conferred during pleaſure, continued in their families, and they came gradually to form an intermediate order between the ſovereign and his ſubjects; and by the vigilant jealouſy

with which they maintained their own dignity and privileges, they conſtrained their rulers to reſpect them, and to govern with equity.

Nor were the benefits of theſe reſtraints upon the power of the ſovereign confined wholly to the two ſuperior orders in the ſtate; they extended, in ſome degree, to the third claſs employed in agriculture. The labours of that numerous and uſeful body of men are ſo eſſential to the preſervation and happineſs of ſociety, that the greateſt attention was paid to render their condition ſecure and comfortable. According to the ideas which prevailed among the natives of India (as we are informed by the firſt Europeans who viſited their country,) the ſovereign is conſidered as the ſole univerſal proprietor of all the land in his dominions, and from him is derived every ſpecies of tenure by which his ſubjects can hold it. Theſe lands were let out to the farmers who cultivated them, at a ſtipulated rent, amounting uſually to a fourth part of their annual produce paid in kind. In a country where the price of work is extremely low, and where the labour of cultivation is very inconſiderable, the earth yielding its productions almoſt ſpontaneouſly, where ſubſiſtence is amazingly cheap, where few clothes are needed, and houſes are built and furniſhed at little expence, this rate cannot be deemed exorbitant or oppreſſive. As long as the huſbandman continued to pay the eſtabliſhed rent, he retained poſſeſſion of the farm, which deſcended, like property, from father to ſon.

Theſe accounts given by ancient authors of the condition and tenure of the renters of land in India, agree ſo perfectly with what now takes place, that it may be conſidered almoſt as a deſcription of the preſent ſtate of its cultivation. In every part of India, where the native Hindoo Princes retain dominion, the *Ryots*, the modern name by which the renters of land are diſtinguiſhed, hold their poſſeſſions by a leaſe, which may be conſidered as perpetual, and at a rate fixed by ancient ſurveys and valuations. This arrangement has been ſo long eſtabliſhed, and accords ſo well with the ideas of the natives, concerning the diſtinctions of caſts, and the functions allotted to each, that it has been inviolably maintained in all the provinces ſubject either to Mahomedans or Europeans; and, to both, it ſerves as the baſis on which their whole ſyſtem of finance is founded. In a more remote period, before the original inſtitutions of India were ſubverted by foreign invaders, the induſtry of the huſbandman, on which every member of the community depended for ſubſiſtence, was as ſecure as the tenure by which he held his land was equitable. Even war did not interrupt his labours or endanger his property. It was not uncommon, we are informed, that while two hoſtile armies were fighting a battle in one field, the peaſants were ploughing or reaping in the next field in perfect tranquillity. Theſe maxims and regulations of the ancient legiſlators of India have a near reſemblance to the ſyſtem of thoſe ingenius modern ſpeculators on political œconomy, who repreſent the produce of land as the ſole ſource of wealth in every country; and who conſider the diſcovery of this principle, according to which they contend that the government of nations ſhould be conducted, as one of the greateſt efforts of human wiſdom. Under a form of government, which paid ſuch attention to all the different

orders of which the ſociety is compoſed, particularly the cultivators of the earth, it is not wonderful that the ancients ſhould deſcribe the Indians as a moſt happy race of men; and that the moſt intelligent modern obſervers ſhould celebrate the equity, the humanity, and mildneſs of Indian policy. A Hindoo Rajah, as I have been informed by perſons well acquainted with the ſtate of India, reſembles more a father preſiding in a numerous family of his own children, than a ſovereign ruling over inferiors, ſubject to his dominion. He endeavours to ſecure their happineſs with vigilant ſolicitude; they are attached to him with the moſt tender affection and inviolable fidelity. We can hardly conceive men to be placed in any ſtate more favourable to their acquiring all the advantages derived from ſocial union. It is only when the mind is perfectly at eaſe, and neither feels nor dreads oppreſſion, that it employs its active powers in forming numerous arrangements of police, for ſecuring its enjoyments and increaſing them. Many arrangements of this nature the Greeks, though accuſtomed to their own inſtitutions, the moſt perfect at that time in Europe, obſerved and admired among the Indians, and mention them as inſtances of high civilization and improvement. There were eſtabliſhed among the Indians three diſtinct claſſes of officers, one of which had it in charge to inſpect agriculture, and every kind of country work. They meaſured the portions of land allotted to each renter. They had the cuſtody of the *Tanks*, or public reſervoirs of water, without a regular diſtribution of which, the fields, in a torrid climate, cannot be rendered fertile. They marked out the courſe of the highways, along which, at certain diſtances, they erected ſtones, to meaſure the road and direct travellers. To officers of a ſecond claſs was committed the inſpection of the police in cities, and their functions, of courſe, were many and various; ſome of which only I ſhall ſpecify. They appropriated houſes for the reception of ſtrangers; they protected them from injury, provided for their ſubſiſtence, and, when ſeized with any diſeaſe, they appointed phyſicians to attend them; and, on the event of their death, they not only buried them with decency, but took charge of their effects, and reſtored them to their relations. They kept exact regiſters of births and of deaths. They viſited the public markets, and examined weights and meaſures. The third claſs of officers ſuperintended the military department.

As manners and cuſtoms in India deſcend almoſt without variation from age to age, many of the peculiar inſtitutions which I have enumerated ſtill ſubſiſt there. There is ſtill the ſame attention to the conſtruction and preſervation of tanks, and the diſtribution of their waters. The direction of roads, and placing ſtones along them, is ſtill an object of police. *Choultries*, or houſes built for the accommodation of travellers, are frequent in every part of the country, and are uſeful as well as noble monuments of Indian munificence and humanity. It is only among men in the moſt improved ſtate of ſociety, and under the beſt forms of government, that we diſcover inſtitutions ſimilar to thoſe which I have deſcribed; and many nations have advanced far in their progreſs, without eſtabliſhing arrangements of police equally perfect.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

ELEMENTS *of* ORTHOGRAPHY; *or an* ATTEMPT *to form a* complete Syſtem *of* LETTERS.

[*Concluded from page* 178.]

TABLE II.

ORTHOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERS, *adapted to the* Engliſh Language, *diſpoſed in* Correlative Order.

Vocular.	Mute.	Names.	Examples of their Power.
	th̲	The	The t̲hing hath̲ not̲hing farther than, &c.
	h	he	he heaves his heavy hands high held, &c.
	l	el	lo liberty calls loud let ſlaves, &c.
	m	em	men marching arm'd muſt mountains climb, &c.
	n	en	when vent'rous men no danger ſhun, &c.
	n̲g	eng	long fingers rings trunks ancles wings, &c.
	b	be	be better breeze peaçe people pleaſe, &c.
	p	pe	did duty do doubt tutor too, &c.
	d	de	give go begin call liquor kin, &c.
	t	te	ov [of] ever visit fear ſuffer p̄ſyſic, &c.
	c k q	ke, ka, kù	az [as] is his courſe fo çivil forçe, &c.
	g	ge [hard]	yoc̲hiogeny lough hough Dreisbac̲h, &c.
	v	if, ef	occaſion ſhun notion viſtoul verſion oçean, &c.
	f p. b̲	uv	we ſway perſuade oür pow'r qüick weigh'd, &c.
	z s	uſ, çe	er [are] rulers wrong fierce wars prolong, &c.
	ſ ç	az, is	ÿe chriſtians few ëuropeans vïew, &c.
	c̲h	ech [German]	rüe lücid cöol pröve footſtep full, &c.
	ſh ti	ſhe, eſh	O nöble pün how ſome love fün, &c.
	w ŭ	je [French]	all órder càll what nŏthing ſmăll, &c.
	r	we	fàr fàther fan maſk matchleſs man, &c.
	ÿ ïe	er	where èighty gâin fed feather hen, &c.
	ÿ'	ye	fhield ferênely clèar lily énglifh èar, &c.
	ù ó	ùſ	I denÿing trÿ riots lions cry, &c.
	ò	ò	ey'e fight ïdle line tidings ty'pes refine, &c.
	u	ù	ünïverſal üſe you refüſe excüſe, &c.
	ou	ò	judges general jews merchant cheaper chuſe, &c.
	ó	à	examples taxes vex luxurioufneſs perplex, &c.
	a	a	
	à	à	
	è a	è	
	è	e	
	i è	i	
	iy e'	ye	
Double Let.			
ì ỳ		I	
ì ỳ'		eye	
ù		you	
j ğ		ja, je	
x.	ch̲	ex.	che

NOTE 1.

The author's idea is to form a convenient junction of the letters t-h, t-i, and c-h, ſo as to make but one type of each pair. And that the ſeveral other marks of diſtinction be for the moſt part incorporated with the letters to which they are annexed. This would conſiderably leſſen the appearance of innovation, and withal render the print more clear and beautiful. There are perhaps ſome further improvements which might be added, to take away the too near reſemblance of ſeveral characters. But it ſeems neceſſary, in the firſt eſſay, to propoſe ſuch a plan as may be executed with the types already extant. The author lives at a conſiderable diſtance from the preſs, and cannot ſuperintend the printing, which renders it difficult to procure the neceſſary alterations. On this account the capital letters are omitted for the preſent.

NOTE 2.

For the greater familiarity of the reader, the characters t.*h*, n.*g*, p.*h*, c.*h*, have their uſual italics annexed, though they muſt be underſtood to poſſeſs their reſpective powers equally, without the additions of *h* and *g*.

Names, &c.

The names of conſonants are in ſome meaſure arbitrary, as to the vowels with which they may be uttered. But they ſhould contain no other articulation beſides that one which is repreſented by the character.

Vowels ſhould be named by uttering ſimply the ſounds which conſtitute their reſpective powers. We obſerved before, that correlative vowels are called by the ſame name; and ſo are likewiſe their duplicates. Thus, ù ô u are of one name, as exemplified in the word rùe, &c. And again, ì ê i é y are likewiſe of one name, as in the word me, &c.

The letters of a ſmaller type, in the preceding table, are called duplicates, being only different characters of the ſame power with their principals.

Thoſe letters connected by a brace at the foot of the column may be called double letters, as each of them repreſents a compound of ſome two principal ones. It becomes convenient to retain theſe duplicates and double letters, on account that a complete reformation, which ſhould reduce our orthography to the firſt principles, would require ſo great innovation, as muſt utterly confound our preſent ſyſtem; and, moreover, deſtroy the apparent analogy and derivation of words, which are of very conſiderable uſe to the ready and thorough underſtanding of the language.

I might here enter into a more particular deſcription of the letters, and explanation of the intended analogy or convenience of the ſeveral forms adopted *; but this will appear much better by an actual ex-

* In the ſeveral marks of diſtinction, I have aimed at a ſignificant uniformity, as far as the confuſed ſtate of the ſubject would admit. Thus the grave accent (`) marks the abſolute vowels according to the moſt regular and proper analogy, to diſtinguiſh them from their correlatives, which occur much more frequently, and therefore are preferred without marks. The (^) marks abſolute vowels uſed in a manner peculiar to the Engliſh language: And (') is annexed to conjunctive vowels, for the ſame purpoſe. The (˘) diſtinguiſhes ſemivowels derived from the approxi-

periment of the plan. A few ſheets, printed in orthographic form, would afford a clearer idea and demonſtration of its practicability, than could be collected from the moſt elaborate deſcription. I ſhall, therefore, for the preſent, only mention in few words the method of applying or introducing to practice the propoſed ſyſtem.

In the firſt place, it ſuppoſes the excluſion or diſuſe of all other characters or combinations, not inſerted in the foregoing table.

Each character is ſuppoſed invariably to repreſent the ſame power, agreeably to the rules and principles herein laid down. The following exceptions only are to be admitted: 1. ſĭ and ȿĭ, or ȿĕ, are ſounded ſh, by affinity, as in the preceding examples; verſĭon, viȿĭouſ, oȿĕan, * &c. 2. The prepoſition ex, before an accented vowel, is ſounded vocular, like egz; as, exiſt, &c. 3. ir or yr are of too near affinity to be diſtinctly ſounded, without fatiguing the organs; and, therefore, when accented, they generally uſurp the ſounds of the approximate vowels e or ú, according as the poſition of the organs, and convenience of utterance, require; as, virtue, firm, ſir, ſhirt, &c. pronounced vertue, ferm, fúr, ſhúrt, &c.

The ſeveral characters in the preceding table will be found to apply (with a very few exceptions) to all the different idioms of ſpelling in our language. And thoſe few irregular caſes, which cannot be provided for, conſiſtently with a proper ſimplicity, may be fairly altered †. For it is better to undergo a ſmall innovation, than to clog the ſyſtem with numerous and inſignificant duplicates. With reſpect to vowels we may obſerve, that it is only in perfect ſyllables they require any critical attention. For in thoſe ſyllables rendered ſhort by the accent, their ſpelling needs only to follow the derivation: And the accented ſyllable being known, and rendered diſtinct, a proper pronunciation of the others will naturally enſue.

In applying the ſyſtem agreeably to theſe rules, it will preſently occur to obſervation, that our orthography is perplexed, not only by the various and doubtful powers of the letters, but alſo by the many ſuperfluous characters retained in words, repreſenting no power at all. Thus the apparently large words taught, eight, are pronounced ſimply tat, èt, &c.

Now, as a ſudden excluſion or diſuſe of theſe dead letters (if we may ſo call them) would produce an innovation, puzzling and diſagreeable to ordinary readers, it would perhaps be convenient, for ſome time, to retain ſuch of them as may be neceſſary to keep up the reſemblance of

mate vowels by affinity. From this view it appears, that thoſe ſounds of the vowels which are peculiar to the Engliſh are in general deviations from original propriety, which would ſeem to argue a want of ſkill in the application of letters to the language.

* Note, xĭ being in effect cſĭ follows the ſame conſtruction; as, complexion, fluxion, anxious, &c. Note alſo, that ſh is a compound of ſ and ĭ, not uttered ſucceſſively, but both together. In like manner ſi is a compound of z and ĭ. In this ſenſe we are to underſtand their denomination in the general ſcale, which otherwiſe might be apprehended to ariſe from the circumſtance of their being repreſented by a junction of two characters. But this would equally apply to th, &c.

† In effecting theſe alterations, it would perhaps be found convenient, in ſome inſtances, to vary a little from that pronunciation which is moſt currently received; and in others to change the letters, always having due regard to uniformity, and the moſt proper analogy of the words.

the former ſyſtem. But, that they may not interfere with or confound the ſignificant letters, they ſhould be printed in the Italic character. And learners might be inſtructed to omit, or paſs over them, in ſpelling, as of no import to the ſound of the words. Moreover, foreign names and other words, not reduced to the ſtandard of Engliſh pronunciation, might be printed wholly in Italics.

Theſe dead letters being thus pointed out and diſtinguiſhed, as inſignificant, would in a very ſhort time, notwithſtanding the oppoſition of ſticklers for antiquity, be totally laid aſide, as uſeleſs lumber. And thus would our alphabet be reduced to a ſimplicity and uniformity unequalled by that of any nation whatever. And of courſe our language, being the beſt, and moſt eaſily attained by foreigners, would become the favourite and moſt univerſal language.

It would far exceed the bounds of my preſent purpoſe, to enter into a deſcription of the advantages which muſt accrue from the adoption of a ſyſtem ſuch as is here propoſed. I flatter myſelf they will be ſufficiently manifeſt to thoſe who ſhall attentively conſider the ſubject. Our learning, our civilization, and almoſt every thing uſeful or ornamental in life, are all derived to us through the medium of letters; which renders the knowledge of them indiſpenſible to every office and ſtation in ſociety. Let us then but for a moment conſider what we are obliged to undergo, to learn the uſe of them in their preſent awkward form. Many are the difficulties, toils, and hardſhips we ſuſtain, not to mention an expence, little ſhort of the whole national revenue. Let us take a compaſſionate view of ſeveral millions, the youth of our whole nation, from ſix to twelve years old and upwards, at ſchool; thirty or forty together ſhut up in little wretched hovels, like criminals, or priſoners of war! and this at a time of life when they ſhould acquire uſeful and noble habits, health, activity of body, and vivacity of mind. Here their conſtitutions are injured, and often deſtroyed, for the want of free air, exerciſe, and ſuitable diet! Their ſpirits depreſſed, and faculties ſtupified, under the ſtern countenance, and hard hand of tyranny. For it is but too generally found, that nothing leſs than deſpotic ſway can compel recoiling nature to the prepoſterous talk.

But if a method can be deviſed, plain, ſimple, and eaſy, which would in a great meaſure ſuperſede the neceſſity of going to ſchool to learn to read, which would enable mothers themſelves to teach their children, with leſs trouble than they uſually have to put up their victuals and ſend them to ſchool; this might be obtained, free from the dangers and anxiety of ſending tender infants abroad;—free from all that indolence, inattention, awkward tones and geſtures, and many other untoward habits, both of body and mind, uſually acquired at ſchool—And, if all theſe are but inconſiderable, when compared with the numberleſs other important advantages which might be derived to a whole nation, and to the republic of letters in general, may I not venture to recommend this, as a ſubject worthy the attention of the philoſophers, the ſtateſmen, and the patriots of the united ſtates.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

On the USE *and* ABUSE *of* SPEECH.

THE faculty of communicating our thoughts by ſpeech is unqueſtionably a precious gift. If we had not been endued with it, that reaſon, on which we juſtly value ourſelves, would have been extremely circumſcribed in its operations, and almoſt limited to the individual. Incapable of making ourſelves underſtood, or of deriving information from others, we ſhould have ſimply obeyed the calls of nature. The endearments of love would have been as tranſient as the meteor, and the duties of parent and child would have been entirely under the dominion of inſtinct. As the reign of inſtinct can be but of ſhort duration, all human obligations would have vaniſhed with it, and the human ſpecies, if it could have exiſted for even a century, in this condition, would have been in a more deplorable ſituation, than the modern Huron or Hottentot. Like a theatrical pantomime, the ſole merit of which conſiſts in abſurdities, the world would at beſt have exhibited continued ſcenes of miſtakes and diſappointments; but, unlike that heterogeneous department of the drama, it would have frequently abounded in malevolence, and the moſt tragical conſequences. Bleſt with the powers of ſpeech, men at very early periods formed themſelves into ſocieties, and, in conſequence thereof, civilization was happily introduced, and is gradually extending its benign influence over the moſt remote regions of the globe.

As by the powers of ſpeech, under the guidance of equity, a ſingle family was originally kept together, ſo by the ſame means various families became gradually united; and thus at length was formed a *ſtate*, or *body politic*. To direct general exertion to general benefit became now the object of the older and more experienced part of the community. As thoſe more enlightened characters diſdained adventitious pre-eminence, ſubſtantial authority was conferred on them, and *that* authority, it is evident, muſt have been preſerved leſs by compulſion, than perſuaſion. Here we diſcover the origin of eloquence, and hence we may trace its progreſs to the preſent day. The mind of man, attentive and docile, readily followed the path of propriety, as ſoon as it was pointed out; but in the diſcovery of it, recourſe muſt have been had to oratory, however rude and uncultivated.

It is unneceſſary, on this occaſion, to attempt minutely to trace the progreſs of eloquence. She has triumphed (permit me to perſonify her) in every age and region; and, although the handmaid of reaſon, is at preſent almoſt as much obeyed as her ſuperior. It muſt, however, be confeſſed, that many have in vain ſought her good graces; and, when they imagined themſelves poſſeſſed of her, have lamentably diſcovered, that they have been in purſuit of either frivolous declamation, or deluſive ſophiſtry. They muſt therefore be acknowledged not to have been inſpired by the genius of eloquence, but actuated by the demon of loquacity.

To meaſure the merit of a public ſpeaker by the length of his ſpeech is certainly a vague, and generally an abſurd rule. To have ſpoken in continuation four hours at the bar is a ſtriking proof of perſeverance, and

may perhaps indicate ſtrength of lungs. Such men are unqueſtionably ſpeakers; but they are by no means entitled, on that account, to the palm of eloquence, and may be ſaid to be infected, and to infect others, with the *cacoethes loquendi*, or the itch of talking.

Quitting the more public ſcenes of life, let us advert to thoſe of retirement. Here eloquence is ſeldom known to exert herſelf; but delegates a portion of her power to converſation. In the friendly circle, a communication of ſentiments, under the government of diſcretion, ought to prevail. How delightful, how enchanting is that harmony of minds, which reſults from an interchange of opinions! When one alone is ſuffered to ſpeak at a time, the dialogue is ſupported by decorum, and enlivened by cheerfulneſs, ſeldom failing to obtain general aſſent and applauſe. It is like the muſic of a ſingle inſtrument, which is followed by the united harmony of a well-regulated band.

But if the demon of loquacity ſhould intrude on this circle, would not the charms of ſocial eloquence, or converſation, be altogether deſtroyed? Would not colloquial diſcord inevitably enſue, attended too often with the moſt ſerious conſequences? Does not fatal enmity too often proceed from this cauſe? Has not Emilia, once the inſeparable friend of Honoria, become her profeſſed enemy, becauſe interrupted by her, whilſt relating the hiſtory of a certain amour? Will ſhe now allow her to poſſeſs a ſingle beauty, or a particle of mental excellence? Nay, does ſhe not even reprobate her as a babbler, and calumniate her as a faded toaſt? It is well known, that three challenges, which originated in colloquial interruptions, will very probably carry ſix combatants to the field. And that a dozen lampoons, proceeding from the ſame cauſe, are now on the carpet. Hence it is evident, that loquacity, or the itch of talking, gives riſe to the itch of ſcribbling; but to pronounce, whether the tongue or the pen is, in theſe, and ſimilar inſtances, the more reprehenſible or dangerous inſtrument, is ſubmitted to the judgment of the reader.

Y.

A new and eaſy METHOD *of preſerving* WATER *ſweet in ſea Voyages; and of* purifying *it when* ſtinking.

IT is well known that water cannot become putrid, unleſs it contains animal and vegetable ſubſtances; and as this is the caſe with all river water, it follows that this water, which is generally uſed on board of ſhips, is ſubject to become putrid and naufeous, more or leſs in proportion to the quantity and quality of the animal and vegetable matter contained in it.

Another cauſe of corruption is owing to the diſſolving property of water; ſo that it often happens, that though the caſks be filled with pure ſpring water, yet the water, by diſſolving the impurities which may be found adhering to the caſks, and becoming impregnated with them, or even with the ſubſtance of the wood itſelf, will become putrid after a certain time.

The principal article, by the means of which Mr. Lowitz preſerves and purifies water, is charcoal duſt; and from a great variety of experiments,

the following particulars are deduced for the practical accompliſhment of an object ſo very important to ſeafaring people.

The charcoal muſt be pounded very fine, and the powder muſt be kept clean, and as free as poſſible from duſt, ſmoke, or other impurities; but the quality of the wood of which the charcoal is made needs not to be regarded, provided it be well charred.—Mr. Lowitz finds that even foſſil coal, when well charred and powdered, will anſwer the purpoſe; but he does not mean to recommend the uſe of it, on account of the metallic minerals which are frequently mixed with it, beſides other reaſons.

About three drams of charcoal duſt will preſerve four ounces of common river water, or will purify it when actually ſtinking; but if a little acid be added, then a much ſmaller quantity of charcoal will do.

Any of the mineral acids will produce the effect, and even ſome ſalts; but the vitriolic acid is to be preferred, principally on account of its having no ſmell.

In order to preſerve freſh water, the caſks muſt be previouſly well waſhed, and ſcoured with ſand or charcoal duſt. After having been filled with the river water, put as much vitriolic acid into it as is juſt ſufficient to render the water ſlightly acid: then add about eight pounds weight of charcoal duſt to each caſk; and as the charcoal duſt naturally falls to the bottom of the caſks, it ſhould be ſtirred with a ſtick at leaſt once a day, ſo as to let it come into contact with as much water as poſſible; and this is all that needs to be done to prevent the water acquiring any bad ſmell or taſte.

When the water is to be uſed, it ſhould be filtered through a flannel bag, which muſt be had ready at hand, and a proper ſtand for it may be eaſily contrived. This filtration ſerves only to ſeparate thoſe finer particles of the charcoal, which, by ſwimming in the water, give it a blackiſh appearance.

It is very remarkable that, if water be rendered juſt ſenſibly acid by mixing a little vitriolic acid with it, the addition of charcoal duſt will remove the acidity.

In order to purify the water which is actually ſtinking in the caſks, proceed in the ſame manner as in the preceding operation; viz. firſt, put ſome vitriolic acid into the caſk, and then as much charcoal duſt as upon trial will be found ſufficient to remove the bad ſmell. In caſe that neither vitriolic nor any other acid can be had, then charcoal duſt alone is ſufficient to purify the water: but in this caſe a greater quantity of it muſt be uſed; perhaps three times as much as when the acid is employed.—This purified water muſt be alſo filtrated as above.

In this manner the operation is ſoon performed; ten minutes, or a quarter of an hour, being more than ſufficient time for it.

To preſerve the water which has been thus purified, when it is not immediately uſed, it muſt be removed into clean caſks; otherwiſe it is apt to become putrid again in a ſhort time.

It is almoſt needleſs to remark, that as the waters of different rivers, in different climates and ſeaſons of the year, are impregnated with various proportions of animal and vegetable matter, ſo the quantity of charcoal duſt which muſt be employed to preſerve and purify them, muſt be more or leſs in proportion.

ELECTRICAL PROPERTIES *in a* MOUSE.

Tranſlation of a Letter from Dr. Cotugno *to the* Chevalier Vivenzio, *at* Naples.

SIR,

THE particulars relative to the obſervation which I mentioned to you a few days ago, when we were talking of electrical animals, and when I ſaid that the mouſe was, in my opinion, one of that ſort, are the following:

Towards the latter end of March, whilſt I was ſitting with a table before me, ſomething which ſeemed to move near my foot, called my attention; and on turning my eyes towards the floor, I obſerved a ſmall mouſe, which, from his delicate coat, ſeemed to have been lately born. As the animal could not run very faſt, I eaſily overtook him, and taking him up by the ſkin of the back, with the thumb and firſt finger, held him upon my hand, with the abdomen upwards. In this ſituation the tail of the animal got between the third and fourth fingers of the ſame hand. I then took up a ſmall diſſecting knife, in order to cut him open, and accordingly began the inciſion towards the middle of the abdomen; but the knife had hardly cut part of the ſkin, when the mouſe moved his tail, and vibrating it very violently againſt the third finger, occaſioned, to my aſtoniſhment, a great ſhock all up the arm, accompanied with a kind of internal tremor.—It likewiſe produced a painful ſenſation on the ſhoulder, and an agitation of the head, which frightened me ſo, that I inſtantly dropped the mouſe. This kind of torpor in the arm continued for a quarter of an hour and upwards; and even the remembrance of it was accompanied with a kind of averſion. I did not know that this animal had any electrical property, but the above-mentioned obſervation gave me an undoubted proof of it.

I have the honour to be, &c. &c.

To this account we can only add a wiſh, that other ingenious perſons may repeat, with more attention, an experiment ſo eaſily tried, in order to eſtabliſh a fact ſo ſingular, and which might open the way to farther diſcoveries relating to animal economy.

Dr. Cotugno is a perſon well known in the learned world for his great knowledge in anatomy; in which branch he has made ſome important diſcoveries——He has been for many years profeſſor of anatomy in the univerſity of Naples. The chevalier Vivenzio is likewiſe a phyſician in the ſame city.

HUMAN FRAILTY.

"Unthought of frailties cheat us in the wiſe."

WHO could ſuppoſe that the following pictures came not from the pencil of malignity, but of truth? Who could imagine that Locke was fond of romances? that Newton gave implicit credit to the dreams

of judicial aſtrology? That Clarke valued himſelf more for his agility than his ſcience? and that the liberal writing, and poetic Pope, was an arrant epicure?

This picture of human frailty may be extended, as the portraits are numerous. Queen Elizabeth was a coquette—the great Bacon was in the conſtant practice of taking bribes. On the eve of an important battle, the Duke of Marlborough abuſed his ſervant for extravagance, in lighting too many candles. Luther was ſo immoderately paſſionate, that he frequently boxed the ears of Melancton; and Melancton himſelf was a believer in dreams. Cardinals Richlieu and Mazarine were ſo ſuperſtitious, as to employ and penſion Morin, a pretender to aſtrology, who calculated their nativities. Dryden was alſo a believer of aſtrology. Hobbes's family believed the exiſtence of ghoſts and goblins; and the great Tacitus, who appears in general to have been ſuperior to ſuperſtition, was groſsly infected by it in particular inſtances.

On GIVING ADVICE.

IF we examine our own hearts, and obſerve attentively what is paſſing around us in the world, I believe it will be found that it is an extremely difficult thing to give advice with ſucceſs, and very painful to receive it without reſentment. And as both theſe reaſons are often to be met with in the ſame perſon, we are not to wonder if they operate unfavourably towards advice in general, even ſo far as to warrant our ſaying that the giving of advice is now very rare, and the taking of it ſtill more ſo. Yet what can be more friendly than to give good advice, and what more dangerous than to neglect it? Such is the queſtion one is tempted to put on a ſlight glance of the ſubject, but the more it is attentively conſidered, the more we are inclined to heſitate.

It is one unhappy conſequence of modern manners that we are farther and farther removing from the primitive and ſimple principles of human conduct; in this caſe it appears now a rude and unpolite thing to give advice. What can be more ſhocking than to offer any thing of this kind in a public company, even if danger be viſibly impending? nor would it perhaps be one whit better received in private.

Advice, it has been obſerved by ſome writers, is diſagreeable, becauſe it implies a degree of ſuperiority which vanity cannot brook, and ſelf-conceit in the extreme will reſent. And true it is, giving advice implies a certain degree of wiſdom, which the perſon to whom the advice is directed, is ſuppoſed not to poſſeſs. But at the ſame time, this, if properly conſidered, may not after all be a degree of *ſuperiority*. One man may know more of a ſubject than another, but it may happen at the ſame time that their *collective wiſdoms*, if I may uſe the phraſe, when compared together, may be perfectly equal. Different men have different ways of conſidering matters, and one man may from curioſity have acquired a greater knowledge of certain affairs than another, who is, perhaps, buying his experience by practice. The moſt illiterate of Sir Iſaac Newton's acquaintance were more than a match for him in the re-

gulation of family matters; yet that great philoſopher did not appear *inferior* to them on that account.

Very often, therefore, what our pride ſuggeſts to us as an affected ſuperiority in our adviſer, ought to be conſidered only as a temporary advantage he has gained over us, which we may at any time equal in our own way.

In giving advice, it is neceſſary to have a thorough knowledge, of the perſon with whom we take this pains. We ſhall otherwiſe defeat our purpoſe. The proud muſt be treated with art and humility. The humble with gentleneſs and lenity. There are ſome perſons with whom a conſciouſneſs of having done wrong is almoſt coeval with the fault itſelf. Where we can diſcern that this is the caſe, our advice is unneceſſary, or if given muſt be given with great caution. It requires a delicate management to touch a wounded mind. Where we only think we diſcern this conſciouſneſs of error, we are to uſe a very great degree of tenderneſs. Indeed, as advice is generally given to thoſe we love, and the pain of giving and receiving is frequently mutual—there is on the one hand a fear leſt we leſſen their reſpect for us, and make them think us auſtere and forbidding, and on the other hand, there is a depreſſion of mind on which, not unfrequently, pride operates very untowardly.

With many, I am aware that ſelf-conceit is the parent of advice. Self-conceited perſons are ſo full of their own perfections, that they conſider themſelves as born to rectify the errors of the reſt of mankind, and in order that theſe errors may be worth rectifying, they magnify them with a degree of uncharitableneſs, which, though it originates in ſelf-conceit, and may occaſionally be well meant, often ends in downright malice, and a ſlanderous diſpoſition. Self-conceited people are not likely to do much good, be their meaning what it may. They make no allowance for human infirmity; and they give their advice, not with humility, not with that diffidence which attracts attention and conciliates eſteem, but with a haughty, poſitive, and dogmatical arrangement of manner, looks, and words. This can no do good, and may do much harm.

"Rich gifts wax poor, when givers prove unkind."

And advice ever ſo good, or ſeaſonable, loſes all its advantages, when given in a dictatorial, churliſh, and proud manner.

It is neceſſary, beſides a knowledge of the perſon, to know the thing itſelf about which we are giving our advice. It is an error not very uncommon, for many perſons to offer their advice in matters of which they are wholly ignorant. It is poſſible they may ſtumble on what is right, but as they much ottener betray their ignorance, they loſe their conſequence with the party, who will certainly follow his own opinion, rather than that of one who is obviouſly ignorant of the matter he pretends to regulate.

Thoſe who are ever ready with their advice, are not always the moſt acceptable adviſers. For though wiſdom is in this world ſcattered among us in different proportions, which ſeems wiſely done to link us together in ſociety, yet there are ſome perſons who, in certain caſes, will not admit the advice of a ſecond perſon. In family matters, for inſtance, advice is generally unſeaſonable, and many conſider it as very impertinent, while others regard it as no leſs dangerous. A man and his wife who

ſhall be quarrelling, if a third preſumes to adviſe, will frequently unite againſt him as a common enemy. He may, indeed, depend on making an enemy of one at leaſt of the parties, which made a perſon once ſay, that he had much rather judge between enemies than between friends, for in judging between two enemies, ſays he, I generally make a friend, but in judging between two friends I make an enemy.

There is one event in life where a great deal of, no doubt, very good advice is daily thrown away, and yet where people will ever continue to beſtow their unſolicited counſel—I mean *marriage*—I know not how it happens, but the fact is, that no ſooner does a man announce his purpoſe of marriage than adviſers flock from all quarters. Whether he be at, or beyond, the years of diſcretion, his friends invariably conſider him as ſtanding in need of advice in this matter. And perhaps my readers will be puzzled to recollect a caſe of marriage, in which the objections of the *friends* did not far exceed their approbation. In this caſe, too, the party is not only counſelled by thoſe who may have a right to give an advice, or who may know ſomething of the matter, but by the whole circle of his male and female acquaintance; maids, wives, and bachelors, are all againſt him, as if he were about to commit a robbery, and they thought it their duty to warn him of the danger. It happens, too, unfortunately for him, that there are ſo many circumſtances to be taken into the account, in matrimonial caſes, that be his acquaintance ever ſo extenſive, they may all have a ſhare in the buſineſs. The lady he is about to wed, is of ſome age or other: ſhe muſt have a fortune or no fortune, it muſt be large or ſmall, or neither one or other, or in ſuch and ſuch funds, or granted on certain terms, or ſettled in a particular way. She muſt have a perſon too, tall, ſhort, thin, fat, fair, black, brown; ſhe muſt have a voice, a temper, a diſpoſition; a certain ſituation in life, and fifty other *et cæteras*.——He, too, is to be anatomized in the ſame manner, and it will invariably be found, that when the opinions on all theſe different points are compared, the deciſion is in favour of celibacy. Much as I value and reſpect good advice, I firmly believe that no man ever yet married with the full conſent of all his friends, and that if all men were to liſten to the advices given on ſuch occaſions, marriages would be ſcarce indeed.

I have ſometimes thought that many people, no wife apparently concerned in the matter, give their advice, becauſe they think that thoſe who are materially concerned, and who ought to give their advice, neglect this important duty. And it muſt be confeſſed, there is too much truth in the latter part of this ſentence. By an unhappy error in education, many parents have advanced their children to a premature manhood. The conſequence of this is the decline of parental authority, and from a like error it has happened, that parents have totally left uncultivated that important part of their duty, the art of giving advice. Hence it is not uncommon for parents to complain that their hearts are almoſt broken by the behaviour of —— of whom? not of their ſons and daughters, grown up and ſettled in the world, but of boys and girls, who, in former days, would have been conſidered as fit objects of chaſtiſement.

It is certain, that to be able to adviſe children, ſo as to convince them that *their* good is your only object, is a great art: it is, indeed, the perfection of the parental duty—but at the ſame time, if it be neglected

when they are young, it comes too late afterward, and they buy, by dear experience, what an attentive parent might have conferred, and a willing child received, with every advantage, and no expence whatever, either of character, morals, or fortune.

In giving advice, books have an advantage over men. A good book may be conſidered as a ſeries of advices. It cannot offend, becauſe it is always at the reader's option to proceed or lay it by. It ſaves him likewiſe the mortification which oral advice ſometimes creates; for here he may bluſh in ſecret, and amend at his leiſure. Authors, however, with an eye to the pride and perverſity of human diſpoſitions, have found it neceſſary to ſtudy the art of pleaſing as well as inſtruction, and thoſe books in which amuſement and inſtruction are mixed, meet with the moſt general reception in the world.

Before I conclude, I may mention that there is one claſs of people, from whom we may be always ſure to reap advantage, if we liſten to them. Theſe are our ENEMIES, and I am perſuaded we owe more to them than we are often willing to acknowledge —It may be objected, that they exaggerate our faults, and that they aſcribe to us faults of which we are innocent. As to the firſt, they oblige us by magnifying a fault, ſo that it appears in its moſt ſhocking colours; and as to their accuſing us of what we never committed, they may call our attention to the enormity of a crime, which perhaps we may have been about to commit, and are thus warned againſt it.

HINTS *for aſcertaining the* Properties *of* PLASTER *of* PARIS.

From an Addreſs *to the* Burlington Society *for the Promotion of* Agriculture *and* Domeſtic Manufactures: *By their Preſident,* John A. de Normandie, Eſq.

THE experiments hitherto made concur in juſtifying plaſter of Paris as a cheap and beneficial manure, but whether it acts on the earth as a ſtimulant, exciting it to give up its contained food, or affords food for vegetables, experience has not determined; the accounts with which we have been furniſhed, by different experimentaliſts, greatly vary, but may not this have ariſen from a difference of ſoil, or a different mode of applying it? experiments made with judgment and preciſion, and communicated with fidelity, muſt aſcertain its future utility; but then the nature of the ſoil, whether dry, gravelly, or ſandy, or a ſtrong loam, or a clayey one, inclining to wet, or rich bottoms, ſhould be carefully attended to; the ſtate the earth was in when put on, whether as a top dreſſing on a ſurface covered with vegetables, or on the freſh earth juſt after ſowing the ſeed; the mode of doing it, the time of day when done, the ſeaſon of the year, the quantity on an acre, and its produce. As a top dreſſing on a graſs ſward, no doubts remain of its ſuperior utility; applied to Indian corn and pompions on the hills, after the plants appear above ground, has proved greatly productive; and I have been informed it has the ſame effect on peas, cabbages, and other productions of the garden. In clays, and rich loamy ſoils, and in moiſt drained meadows, it is ſaid to

afford little or no aſſiſtance; but in gravelly and light dry ſoils, its effects are almoſt beyond credibility. Whence this difference? does it ariſe from the great coheſion of the tough, clayey, and loamy ſoils, requiring a larger proportion of the manure to divide its parts, ſo as to afford the roots a free paſſage to extend themſelves in ſearch of food? or is the quantity (as what has been generally uſed is from 4 1-2 to 7 buſhels on the acre) by increaſing that coheſion, too large for ſuch ſoils? experience muſt determine the queſtion.

One property of the plaſter of Paris is worthy your notice; that is, its ſolubility in water; as in it, it will entirely diſſolve: A pint of water will be fully ſaturated with about 4 1-2 grains of the ſtone, when it will diſſolve no more. Hence, may it not in clays, loam, and rich bottoms, meet with a quantity of moiſture which ſuch ſoils greatly retain, ſufficient for its ſolution; and, by the additional gravity that ſolution acquires, ſink into the earth to a depth below the roots of graſs, and to them become uſeleſs? But this, with great deference, I offer as a poſſible conjecture.

MINERAL NITRE *difcovered at* Molfetta *in the Kingdom of* Naples.

[From the ITALIAN MERCURY.]

NEW diſcoveries are generally ſubject to great oppoſition, ſometimes the merit of novelty is denied to an author; at others, his integrity is ſuſpected; or theories are held up incompatible with practice, before the iſſue has been ſeen; or ſometimes facts themſelves are proſcribed, becauſe they ill accord with pointed arguments, founded on the baſis of reſpectable authorities. But is not the authority of facts greater than that of any objection? Can we pretend that it is poſſible for our arguments to preſcribe limits to the operations of nature? How weak we are! All the authorities that have been, are, or ſhall be, will never annihilate a fact; though a ſingle fact, well authenticated, will be ſufficient to deſtroy a library of metaphyſical arguments to the contrary. The *nitre mines* of Molfetta, diſcovered by the Abbe Fortis, in 1783, have been ſubject to the uſual viciſſitudes. This diſcovery was firſt thought a mere dream, and it was poſitively affirmed that *mineral nitre* could not poſſibly exiſt. The Abbe Fortis well knew the falſity of ſuch an opinion; and all thoſe knew it, who had in the leaſt peruſed the works of *mineralogiſts*. In his "Hiſtorical Philoſophical Memoir, reſpecting Mineral Nitre," he ſufficiently ſhews to all thoſe who had ſo readily ſubſcribed to ſuch an opinion, that there are in many places of the earth, mines of nitre, and that theſe have been known many years. In the laſt winter the Abbe Fortis ſent me, beſides ſome curious pieces of *nitrous chryſtallization*, fragments of that ſtone which he looked on as the *mould* of his nitre. This is a calcareous ſtone, of a ſullied white colour, of a fine compact texture, and which, perhaps, might be capable of being poliſhed; but I have not made the experiment. To preſerve this ſtone from humidity, and the external air, I placed it in a glaſs veſſel, covered with many folds of paper, and kept it in a glaſs caſe. I examined it in the

beginning of April, and the pieces of ſtone were all covered with a fine efflorescence of nitre, which was very viſible, even where the pieces had been broken. By the end of the month, I found all thoſe ſmall ſtones covered with the moſt beautiful nitre. Every thing being replaced, I waited till the end of May to examine it again; when, to my great ſatisfaction, the truth was ſtill more confirmed, by a freſh and beautiful efflorescence of nitre. After this, can we ſtill doubt whether the nitre mines of Molfetta are mineral or artificial? If this is not a real mine, what is ſo? I could not conceal this fact, without being deficient in the homage due to truth. I have engaged in this the more willingly, on account of the malicious, ſtrange, and contrary opinions which have, for ſome time, been prevalent in the extreme of Italy, in which you reſide.

Singular Account *of a* Female Surgeon.

[From the ſame.]

Florence, 1788.

OUR city has lately been witneſs to a very ſingular phenomenon in the hiſtory of literature. A female underwent a public examination, before all the college of phyſicians and ſurgeons; and, to the ſurpriſe of every one, proved ſuperior to all expectation.

This extraordinary lady is Mrs. Maria Petruncini Ferretri, of Bagnacavallo; who, deſirous of rendering herſelf uſeful to mankind, and eſpecially to many of her own ſex, who often, through perhaps too great modeſty, but natural to female education, fall victims to their own delicacy, has applied herſelf with ſuch aſſiduity to the ſtudy of ſurgery, that, in the ſpace of a year, ſhe has enabled herſelf to add to ſcience, to her ſex, and to her country, an honour and advantage, of which, in the preſent manner of bringing up female youth in Europe, it will be difficult to hear of another example.

Deciſion *of a* Controverſy *reſpecting* Virgil's Tomb; *which may ſerve as an uſeful* Caution *to* Travellers.

MANY travellers have aſſerted their having ſeen a blooming laurel on Virgil's tomb, and others have denied the fact; this has given riſe to an obſtinate controverſy between the two parties. Many letters on the ſubject having been inſerted in the *Journal de Paris*, the editor, wearied with the number, had determined to publiſh no more; till two, ſufficient to reconcile all contradictions, were offered to him. Theſe therefore, he inſerted. The following are abridged tranſlations of them.

"In 1772 and 1773, I made a voyage to Italy; and having arrived at Naples, I went to viſit the grotto of Poſilippo, and look for the laurel, which I conceived to be very majeſtic. The Cicerone pointed out a little ſhrub, which had eſcaped my obſervation. Is this, ſaid I, that fa-

mous laurel, which, for ſo many centuries, has afforded ſo many branches to travellers? I threw a few carlins on the ground, to induce him to go to ſome diſtance whilſt I plucked the branch, which I diſcovered to have been newly planted. Do you thus deceive travellers, ſaid I, turning to the Cicerone? Any body, anſwered he, provided there is money to be got. It is as eaſy to plant a laurel on the tomb of Virgil, as to fabricate camaieus in the manufactures of Rome; or paint, on ſmoked canvas, the pretended originals of the Lombard and Roman ſchools. I have ſeen copies of Paul Veroneſe, Parmegianino, and Guido Reni, ſold as undoubted originals; and valued by the purchaſers in proportion to their high price. But what aſtoniſhes me is, that, for ſo long a time, travellers are not aware of this ſpecies of impoſition."

The writer of the other letter ſays, "Count Thecle writes, that being laſt year at Naples, he went to viſit the pretended tomb of Virgil, and eaſily plucked the laurel, which had been but lately planted. Hence the reaſon why many may have ſeen it, many will ſee it, and ſome may pluck it."

A comprehenſive ACCOUNT *of the various* TRANSLATIONS *of the* HOLY SCRIPTURES.

[Prefixed to W. YOUNG's Edition of the BIBLE.]

THE Providence of God is particularly manifeſted in the preſervation of the Holy Scriptures. To the Jews were committed the Oracles of God, and ſo faithful have they been to the ſacred truſt, that when copies of the law or the prophets were tranſcribed, they not only diligently compared the one with the other, but even counted the number of letters in each book, and compared the numbers.

In like manner, Chriſtians have always manifeſted the greateſt care, not only when they tranſcribed, but alſo when they tranſlated the Scriptures into their reſpective languages. No ſooner did the Goſpel ſpread through the nations, than it was found neceſſary to tranſlate the Bible for each, into its proper language. Thoſe who were favoured with the light of the Goſpel at the moſt early periods, have therefore the moſt ancient tranſlations. Some affirm that the five books of Moſes, and that of Joſhua, were tranſlated into Greek before the days of Alexander the Great. But the moſt remarkable tranſlation of the Old Teſtament is called the Septuagint, which, if the opinion of ſome eminent writers is to be credited, was made in the reign of Ptolemy Philadelphus, about 280 years before the Chriſtian era. At any rate, it is undoubtedly the moſt ancient that is now extant, and on many accounts deſerving notice, though not to be put on a level with the Hebrew text, as has been ſometimes done.

Other tranſlations of the Old Teſtament, into Greek, were made, from A. D. 128 to 200. It is generally believed that the church of Antioch was favoured with a Syrian verſion of the Bible, in the year 100. The Ethiopians, of Abyſſinia, have a verſion of the Bible, which they aſcribe to Frumentius, of the fourth century. Chryſoſtom, who lived in the end of the fourth, and Theodoret, who lived in the middle of the fifth century,

both inform us, that they had the Syrian, Indian, Perſian, Armenian, Ethiopic, Scythian, and Samarian verſions. The ancient Egyptians had the ſcriptures tranſlated into their language. The Georgians have a verſion in their ancient language. The verſion in uſe among the Ruſſians, in the Sclavonic tongue, is ſaid to have been written by Cyril their apoſtle. The moſt ancient German tranſlation is ſuppoſed to have been made by Ulphilus, A. D. 360. The Old Teſtament of all theſe verſions, except the Syrian, is taken from the Septuagint.

The famous Latin tranſlation of the Bible, called the Vulgate, which is now, and has been for many ages, of authority in the church of Rome, is of great antiquity. It is by ſome ſaid to have been written, or at leaſt copied and improved, by St. Jerom, in the fourth century; probably the laſt was the caſe, for there exiſted before his time a Latin verſion, which Auguſtine calls the Italian, Jerom the Vulgate, and Gregory Nazeazen, the ancient verſion. In the year 1290, Peter De Vaux tranſlated the Bible into French; and about the ſame time the Spaniſh tranſlation was made. There have been many tranſlations, both into French and Spaniſh, ſince that time. The Poliſh verſion was publiſhed A. D. 1390; and the firſt Italian verſion A. D. 1471. Luther compoſed his verſion of the Bible, in the German language, between the years 1521 and 1532; and what is remarkable, not only the Popiſh tranſlations, but thoſe of the Proteſtants, for a conſiderable time after the reformation, were made, not from the Hebrew of the Old, and Greek of the New Teſtament, but from the Latin of the Vulgate. We are told that, early in the ſixteenth century, the Bohemians took their firſt verſion from the Vulgate; but that towards the cloſe of that century, eight divines were employed to compoſe another from the original text.

We will now give ſome account of the tranſlations of the Bible into the Engliſh language. There have been ſome who have affirmed that Adelme, Biſhop of Sherborn, who lived in the beginning of the 8th Century, tranſlated the Pſalms into the Saxon tongue. That however is uncertain, as ſome of the beſt hiſtorians make no mention of it; yet it is poſſible, as he was a man of great parts and of great learning for theſe times, and ſaid to be the firſt Engliſhman who wrote in the Latin language. About the ſame time, or a little after, Bede, commonly called the venerable Bede, tranſlated ſome parts of the New Teſtament, ſome ſay the whole Bible, but that is not probable. Near two hundred years later, king Alfred tranſlated the Pſalms into the ſame language. In 1382 Wickliff finiſhed his tranſlation of the Bible, which is yet extant; that is to ſay, there are copies of it in ſome public and private libraries. All theſe tranſlations were made from the Vulgate. In the reign of Henry 8th, ſeveral Editions of the Old and New Teſtament were publiſhed in Engliſh; one of the moſt remarkable is that of William Tyndal in 1530. The tranſlation of the New Teſtament was made from the Original Greek, but probably the old Teſtament either from the Latin of the Vulgate, or the Greek of the Septuagint. This was ſoon followed by the improvements of Coverdale and Mathews. By order of the king, Tonſtal Biſhop of Durham, and Heath Biſhop of Rocheſter, made a new tranſlation, which was publiſhed in 1541; but not pleaſing Henry, was ſuppreſſed by authority. In the reign of king Edward the 6th, another tranſlation was made, two editions of which were publiſhed, one in 1549, and the other

in 1551. In the reign of queen Elizabeth another tranſlation was made, which, being reviſed by ſome of the moſt learned of the Biſhops, went by the name of the Biſhop's Bible. This profeſſed to be tranſlated from the Hebrew of the Old Teſtament, and the Greek of the New, though in ſome inſtances, when there was a difference, it preferred the Septuagint to the Hebrew.

This laſt circumſtance, with ſome others, induced king James the 1ſt to ſelect fifty four perſons, eminent in learning, and particularly well acquainted with the Original languages in which the Old and New Teſtaments were written, to make a new tranſlation of the whole Bible. In the year 1607 forty ſeven of thoſe perſons, the other ſeven probably having died, aſſembled together, and arranged themſelves into committees, to each of which a portion was given to tranſlate. They were favoured not only with the beſt tranſlations, but with the moſt accurate copies, and the various readings of the Original text. After about three years aſſiduous labour, they ſeverally completed the parts aſſigned them. They then met together, and while one read the tranſlation newly formed, the reſt had each a copy of the Original text in his hand, or ſome one of the ancient verſions, and when any difficulty occurred they ſtopt, till by common conſultation it was determined what was moſt agreeable to the inſpired Original. This tranſlation was firſt publiſhed A. D. 1610, and is the one that has been, ever ſince that time, printed by public authority, and generally uſed in the Britiſh dominions. It may be added, with ſafety, that it has been generally approved by men of learning and piety, of all denominations, of which its having never been ſuperſeded by any other, for one hundred and eighty years, is a ſufficient proof.

Philadelphia, 1790.

COLLECTION OF BIBLES.

To the preceding ſketch of thoſe tranſlations of the Sacred Volume, which are, or have been, moſt generally known, we are happy in having it in our power to lay before our Readers the following account of, probably, the beſt and moſt extenſive collection of Bibles in the world.

THE preſent duke of Wittemberg, owner of this curious and valuable collection, in a letter of 3d January, 1789, to ſignior Canon Bandini, at Florence, ſays, "The catalogue of the Bibles of Paſtor Lorck, which I procured at Copenhagen, contains but a third of thoſe which I have in my poſſeſſion. The whole of my collection of Bibles ſurpaſſes the number of *eight thouſand* copies, all different one from the others; there are more than *fifty-one languages*, including the dialects. I can ſay, that it is unique in its kind. I would wiſh you to ſee it one day, which would not fail to increaſe its value in my eſtimation. My Engliſh correſpondents have informed me of the intended edition of the old Greek Teſtament, according to the verſion of the LXX, publiſhed in 1587."

Of this immenſe collection of Bibles, a catalogue has been lately pub-

liſhed at Altona, by profeſſor Adler. This catalogue is divided into five parts. The firſt contains the Hebrew and Greek editions, and the Oriental tranſlations, to the number of 998 articles. The ſecond contains the editions in Latin, and other relative languages, to the number of 1158. The third includes the Teutonic, or German tranſlations, conſiſting alſo of 1158 in number. The fourth part contains editions in Engliſh, Dutch, Daniſh, Swediſh, and other languages, particularly the northern, to the number of 774. The fifth conſiſts of an appendix, in which are compriſed the books of the apocrypha, the poetic paraphraſes, the harmonies of the Bible, the concordances, the hiſtories, and the cuts, in number 1068. "A collection of this nature (ſay the editors of a foreign Journal) cannot fail to render immortal, in the annals of literature, the prince who glories, not only in poſſeſſing it, but in communicating to the learned the moſt accurate account of it."

Simple mode *of extracting* freſh Water *from* ſalt Water.

A Common hogſhead is provided with a falſe bottom, about three or four inches above the true one. The falſe bottom is perforated with a number of holes, and over them is placed a filter of flannel.—The barrel is then nearly filled with the fineſt ſand, beat down very hard: a tube, communicating with the ſpace between the two bottoms, is extended to a convenient height above the top of the barrel. The ſea water is poured into this tube; and, preſſing every way according to its altitudes, it endeavours to force its way through the ſand, to the top of the barrel; from whence, by this mode of filtration, it is drawn off freſh, and fit for uſe. Any other filter will do as well as flannel, provided it ſtops the ſand and admits the water. The ſaline particles being heavier, and perhaps differently formed, meet with obſtructions from the ſand, and are left behind.—The experiment is eaſy, and promiſes to be of great utility.

Account *of an* Extraordinary Malady.

IN ſeveral vallies of Italy, particularly in the vallies of Piedmont, many children, as they grow up, have monſtrous wens formed on their throats; and it is obſerved, that ſuch perſons are generally ſtupid in an extraordinary degree, little ſhort of idiocy. A publication on this ſubject, by Sig. Malacarne, profeſſor of ſurgery, &c. has lately made its appearance at Turin. This work is mentioned in a foreign Journal, but not ſo fully as we could wiſh. We can only learn, that Sig. Malacarne has made ſundry anatomical obſervations on the brains of three men of the above deſcription, the reſult of which he has publiſhed; and that he calls on other able profeſſors to join him, in making ſimilar obſervations, that means may be found, if poſſible, to correct this dreadful diſorder, either by compreſſions, an operation, or the cautery.

A ſimple and efficacious Remedy *for a* Burn.

A Lady's clothes having accidentally caught fire, ſhe was ſhockingly burnt, inſomuch that her whole body was an entire ſore. In her diſtraction, ſhe had recourſe to what came firſt to hand, and this happened to be honey, which had ſo good an effect, that, at the end of nine days, ſhe was cured by this remedy alone.

Ital. Merc.

The Force of Prejudice: *An* Anecdote.

Mr. Anders had repaired, for a dealer in pictures, a piece by Domenichino, and Mengs, the celebrated painter, was invited to ſee it, while Anders was ſtill in the room, working on other pictures. Mengs ſaw the picture, and praiſed it much; he particularly admired the arm of a little boy, which, having been quite effaced from the canvaſs, Anders had been obliged to repaint. The reſtorer, ſmiling, thanked Mengs for his commendations, informing him that the arm was newly painted by himſelf. Mengs, though he eſteemed Anders, bluntly replied, that he ſhould take care how he attempted to impoſe on him, as he well knew what was a mere repair, and what was Dominichino's. Mr. Anders, without replying, approached the picture with ſome ſpirit of wine; and, while Mengs turned his head, blotted out the arm, with that facility with which freſh painting is removed. Mengs turned round, was convinced of the truth, and ſententiouſly obſerved—"You are right—the arm was painted by you—But I know not whether I ought to congratulate or condole with you. Since you are able to perform in this manner, you ought to be a painter, and not a repairer."

Advantages *enjoyed by the* People *of the* United States.

The author of an elogy on Americus Veſpucius, publiſhed at Verona, in 1738, preſages the future greatneſs of America in very glowing language. "The laſt people in improvement (he remarks) always advance with greater and quicker paces, than thoſe who preceded them; as their minds are not ſpoiled by old ſyſtems; their intellects not weakened by the impoſing dictates of authority; their reaſon not corrupted by the prejudices of foregoing ages." He concludes with a beautiful apoſtrophe to the Americans, in which he exhorts them to acknowledge the benefits they have derived from the diſcovery of Veſpucius, and duly to improve the numerous and important advantages they enjoy.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

HISTORY *of the* AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

[*Continued from page* 156.]

Campaign of 1777.

THE adherents to the British cause were now the more numerous, as the taking of Philadelphia was looked upon, by many short-sighted politicians, as decisive of the fate of America. Such persons did not reflect, that although in other countries, possession of their capital had often been followed by a general submission, yet the case was widely different in America, where the state of the public mind, and not the loss of any particular place, was the great criterion from which any probable conjecture could be formed respecting the issue of the war. In a country so extensive and so peculiarly circumstanced, the acquisition of a single city could avail the enemy but little, so long as the great body of the people were firmly determined to persevere to the last, in defence of those rights, without which they considered life itself as a burden. Some, however, who viewed the capture of the city in a less important light, were of opinion, that the luxuries of the place, and the security which the enemy now enjoyed, might rather tend to enervate their troops, and render them averse from those active exertions to which necessity had hitherto continually impelled them. It was said that Sir William Howe might now be considered as in a situation somewhat similar to that of Hannibal, when, with an army capable of over-running all Italy, he took up his winter quarters in Capua, the luxuries of which, with a relaxation of that rigid discipline to which his men had been accustomed, laid the foundation of that series of misfortunes and defeats which ensued, and terminated at length in the ruin of his country. Dr. Franklin, desirous of preventing any unfavourable impressions in France, from the success of the enemy on this occasion, ingeniously observed, that, "Instead of saying that sir William Howe had taken Philadelphia, it would be more proper to say, that Philadelphia had taken sir William Howe."

When the British troops had taken possession of the city, their first object was the erecting of batteries to command the river, and secure themselves from the fire of the American vessels. While they were thus employed, the American frigate Delaware, of 32 guns, anchored within 500 yards of the unfinished works, and, being seconded by some smaller vessels, commenced a heavy cannonade, both upon the batteries and town; but upon the falling of the tide she ran aground, and was soon obliged to surrender. The other vessels, unable to resist the fire of the enemy, retired, with the loss of a schooner, which was driven ashore.

Philadelphia was yet inaccessible by a fleet, by reason of the obstructions in the river, and the strong batteries that had been erected for its defence. Lord Howe, who had sailed for the Delaware, immediately after the battle of Brandywine, was therefore obliged to come to anchor along the shore, from Reedy-Island to New-Castle.

General Washington, having been reinforced by 1500 men from Peek's-kill, and 1000 from Virginia, and having received intelligence that general Howe had detached three regiments for the purpose of

reducing the forts on the Delaware, reſolved to attack the Britiſh main body, poſted at Germantown. Their line of encampment croſſed the town (which conſiſts of one long ſtreet) at right angles, near its centre; the left wing extended from the town to the Schuylkill; and both wings were covered by advanced parties. The 40th regiment, and a battalion of light infantry, were poſted on the Cheſnut-hill road, three quarters of a mile in advance. And Lord Cornwallis lay at Philadelphia, with four battalions of grenadiers. Such was the ſituation of the Britiſh army.

On the evening of the 3d of October, the Americans marched from their encampment at Skippach creek, diſtant from Germantown 18 miles, with a view, if poſſible, to commence their attack early next morning, before the enemy ſhould be apprized of their intention. General Waſhington, apprehenſive that his troops, from the want of diſcipline, were unfit for a long engagement, reſolved to make a ſudden and vigorous onſet, and if unſucceſsful, to retreat with as much expedition as poſſible. The diviſions of Sullivan and Wayne, flanked by Conway's brigade, were to enter the town by way of Cheſnut-hill, while general Armſtrong, with the Pennſylvania militia, ſhould fall down the Manatawny road, and fall on the left and rear of the Britiſh. The diviſions of Greene and Stephens, flanked by M'Dougal's brigade, were to enter the town by the Lime-kiln road; while the Maryland and Jerſey militia, under generals Smallwood and Furman, were to march by the old York road, and fall upon the rear of the enemy's right. Lord Sterling, with Naſh's and Maxwell's brigades, were to form a corps de reſerve.

General Waſhington accompanied the diviſions of Sullivan and Wayne, and expected that the Britiſh, if informed of his march, would be prepared to receive him on Cheſnut-hill. Upon finding that this was not the caſe, he hoped that the enemy would be completely ſurpriſed. They had diſcovered his approach, however, about three o'clock, and the troops were immediately called to arms. About ſunriſe, on the 4th of October, the Americans commenced their attack on the diviſion which was advanced on the Cheſnut-hill road. Theſe corps, after a ſhort, but ſevere conflict, gave way, and were vigorouſly purſued into the village. Lieutenant colonel Muſgrove, with ſix companies of the 40th regiment, took poſt in Mr. Chew's ſtrong ſtone houſe, which lay full in front of the Americans. This circumſtance had conſiderable influence in determining the fortune of the day. From an adherence to the military maxim, of never leaving a fort poſſeſſed by an enemy in the rear, it was determined to attack the party in the houſe; though ſome of the officers were of opinion, that it would be better to leave a party to watch the houſe, and purſue the advantages they had already obtained.

In the mean time general Greene had attacked the right wing. Colonel Matthews, of Greene's diviſion, routed a party oppoſed to him, and made 110 priſoners; but, there being a thick fog, he loſt ſight of the brigade to which he belonged, and was taken priſoner, with his whole regiment. A conſiderable part of Greene's diviſion were ſtopped by the halting of the party before Chew's houſe, where nearly one half of the American army remained, for ſome time, inactive. This delay, together with the caution which the darkneſs of the morning rendered neceſſary, gave the Britiſh time to recover from the effects of their

firſt ſurpriſe; and the early promiſing appearances, on the part of the aſſailants, were ſpeedily reverſed.

During this fatal inactivity on the part of the Americans, general Grey, with three battalions, aſſiſted by general Agnew at the head of his brigade, commenced a deſperate attack, in which he was oppoſed, for ſome time, with great bravery; but another attack being made on the oppoſite ſide of the village, by two regiments, and general Grant advancing with the 49th regiment, to the aſſiſtance of thoſe who were engaged with Greene's column, the Americans were thrown into diſorder, and retreated with ſome degree of precipitation, after having ſupported a ſtraggling kind of engagement for nearly three hours. Lord Cornwallis now arrived with a party of light horſe, and joined in the purſuit, which was continued for ſome miles; but general Greene, who covered the retreat, managed matters ſo well, availing himſelf of the advantages of the fog and a woody country, that the Americans did not ſuſtain much loſs in the retreat. The loſs of the royal army, including the priſoners and wounded, was ſomething more than 500. Among their ſlain were brigadier general Agnew and lieutenant colonel Bird. The loſs of the Americans, including 400 priſoners, was upwards of 1000. Among the ſlain were general Naſh, of North-Carolina, and his aid de camp, major Witherſpoon.—An American general, who was in the action, wrote ſhortly after to his correſpondent as follows—"At Germantown, fortune ſmiled on our arms for hours. The enemy were broke, diſperſed, and flying on all quarters. We were in poſſeſſion of their whole encampent, together with their artillery park, &c.—A *wind-mill* attack was made on a houſe, into which ſix light companies had thrown themſelves to avoid our bayonets—this gave time to the enemy to rally—our troops were deceived by this attack; taking it for ſomething formidable, they fell back to aſſiſt, in what they deemed a ſerious matter. The enemy, finding themſelves no further purſued, and believing it to be a retreat, followed. Confuſion enſued; and we ran away from the arms of victory, ready to receive us."*

Shortly after this engagement, general Howe moved his army from Germantown to Philadelphia, and turned his principal attention to the reduction of the forts on the Delaware, that he might be enabled to open a free communication between his army and the ſhipping.

Great exertions had been made by the Americans to ſecure the city from any attack by the ſhipping of the enemy. Beſides thirteen gallies, two floating batteries, two zebeques, and a number of armed boats, fire ſhips and rafts, provided for this purpoſe, great pains had been taken to erect ſtrong forts in different places, where they could moſt effectually command the navigation of the river. One, named fort Mifflin, had been erected on Mud-iſland, with a conſiderable battery thereon. This iſland lies near the middle of the river, about 7 miles below Philadelphia; and is a very advantageous poſt for annoying veſſels on their paſſage up the Delaware. No veſſels of burden can come up, but by the main channel which paſſes cloſe to Mud-iſland, and is very narrow for more than a mile lower down. Directly oppoſite to this iſland, at the diſtance of half a mile, acroſs the channel, on the Jerſey ſhore, is an eminence, named

* Gordon's Hiſtory.

Red-bank, which overlooks not only the river, but the adjacent country. Here alſo a ſtrong battery was erected. Between theſe two forts the American naval armament, for the defence of the Delaware, enjoyed a ſecure retreat. Two ranges of chevaux de friſe were alſo ſunk in the channel. Theſe conſiſted of large pieces of timber, ſtrongly framed together, in the manner in which the foundations of wharfs, in deep water, are uſually conſtructed. To the upper parts of theſe were faſtened a number of iron ſpikes, with barbed points projecting down the river; and the whole was ſunk by means of ſtones, ſo as to be about four feet under the ſurface, at low water. So immenſe were their weight and ſtrength, that the deſtruction of any veſſel which ſhould ſtrike upon them muſt have been inevitable. Thirty of theſe machines were ſunk about three hundred yards below fort Mifflin, forming a diagonal line acroſs the channel. The only paſſage left was between two piers, cloſe to the fort, and could not be approached but in a direct line to the battery. It was alſo ſecured by a ſtrong boom. Fortifications were erected on another high bank, on the Jerſey ſhore, called Billingſport, lower down the river, oppoſite to which was ſunk another range of chevaux de friſe, leaving only a narrow ſhoal channel near the ſhore. There was alſo a ſmall battery erected at the mouth of Mantua-creek, about midway between Billingſport and Red-bank.

To attempt either to weigh or cut through theſe, was a taſk equally difficult; nor could either be done unleſs the forts erected for their defence were previouſly reduced. In the beginning of October, a conſiderable detachment croſſed the Delaware, for the purpoſe of diſlodging the Americans from Billingſport; and, on their approach, the place was evacuated. This enabled the Britiſh to cut away and weigh up ſo much of the chevaux de friſe, notwithſtanding the oppoſition they met with from the gallies and armed veſſels, as opened a narrow paſſage for large ſhips through the lower barrier.

As the ſeaſon advanced, more vigorous means were taken for removing the obſtructions. To aſſiſt in diſlodging the Americans from fort Mifflin, batteries were erected on the Pennſylvania ſhore; and a plan was concerted for attacking fort Mifflin and Red-bank at the ſame time. Count Donop, with 2000 Heſſians, croſſed the Delaware, at Philadelphia, marched to Red-bank, and demanded a ſurrender of the fort, in the moſt peremptory terms. The garriſon conſiſted of 400 men, under col. Greene, of Rhode-Iſland, who returned for anſwer, "I ſhall defend it to the laſt extremity." This was the ſignal for an immediate attack, which was commenced with great fury, under the cover of a ſmart cannonade This place having been intended for a much larger garriſon than it now contained, a line had been run within the fort, and the outer part evacuated. That part was eaſily carried by the aſſailants, who raiſed a loud huzza for their ſuppoſed victory; but a ſevere and well directed fire from the garriſon obliged them, after a deſperate engagement, to retreat. They ſuſtained a loſs of 400 men, in killed and wounded. Count Donop was mortally wounded, and taken priſoner. The ſecond in command was alſo dangerouſly wounded. The detachment ſuffered not only in the aſſault, but in their approach to and retreat from the fort, by the fire of the American gallies and floating batteries. Congreſs reſolved that col. Greene ſhould be preſented with a ſword for his good con-

October 22.

duct on this occasion. The attack on fort Mifflin proved equally unsuccessful. The ships could not bring their guns to bear, with any considerable effect, upon the works. The Augusta, of 64 guns, and the Merlin sloop of war, two of the British vessels that were engaged, got aground. The former, having caught fire, was blown up; and the latter was deserted by her crew, who took refuge on board the other vessels, which were obliged to retire.

While the British were intent upon the great object of opening the navigation of the Delaware, by a reduction of the forts, and the removal of the chevaux de frise, an unexpected circumstance enabled them to carry their point, in a different way.—By the sinking of the chevaux de frise the main current was obstructed, and the water diverted into a new channel. In consequence of this, the passage between Mud-island and the Pennsylvania shore was so much deepened, as to admit vessels of a considerable draught of water. The Vigilant, a large ship, cut down so as to draw but little water, and carrying twenty 24 pounders, made her way through this passage, to a position from which she was enabled to enfilade the works on the island, so that this important post was no longer tenable. Colonel Smith, of the Maryland line, who had defended the fort with great gallantry, from the latter end of September to the 11th of November, was removed to the main. On the 15th of November, the enemy made a most furious attack upon the fort; and major Thayer, of the Rhode-Island line, who had bravely taken charge of this dangerous post, as a volunteer, was obliged to evacuate it; but not before the works were almost entirely beat down, every gun dismounted, and one of the British ships so near that she threw granadoes into the fort, and killed the men, who were uncovered in the platform. The brave garrison made a safe retreat to Red-bank. Congress resolved that colonel Smith and commodore Hazelwood, should each be presented with a sword, for their gallant defence of the Delaware.—Three days after the evacuation of Mud-island, the garrison was also withdrawn from Red-bank, on the approach of lord Cornwallis, with a strong detachment, prepared for an assault.—Some of the American gallies and armed vessels escaped to a place of security above Philadelphia, by keeping close in with the Jersey shore; but seventeen, which could not be got off, were abandoned by their crews, and burnt.

Thus did the British at length gain a free communication between their army and shipping, an event to them very desirable; for they had hitherto been obliged to bring their provisions sixteen miles by land, from Chester, at a considerable risk, and an enormous expence. The slowness of their movements in the beginning of the summer, however, added to the long and unexpected opposition they met with at Red-bank and Mud-island, effectually deranged their plans for the remainder of the campaign, prevented them from deriving those advantages from the possession of Philadelphia which they had promised themselves, and saved the adjacent country from the miseries of a predatory war.

While success attended the arms of the British under sir William Howe, the whole of their northern army, with general Burgoyne at their head, were made prisoners of war, as shall be particularly related hereafter. General Washington, having been considerably reinforced, by a detachment from the army which had captured Burgoyne, ad-

vanced to White-marſh, within fourteen miles of Philadelphia, and encamped in a ſtrong poſition. The royal army having reduced the forts on the Delaware, and being reinforced by 4000 men from New-York, the Britiſh commander was now deſirous of bringing on a general engagement, and for that purpoſe marched almoſt his whole force from Philadelphia, in the night of the 4th of December. Next morning, he appeared on Cheſnut-hill, about three miles in front of the right wing of the Americans. Here he manœuvred for ſome days, changed his poſition, marched and countermarched, ſometimes evincing an inclination to attack the American encampment, inſomuch that an engagement was expected to take place every hour. Although general Waſhington was in a better condition for a general engagement than he had been in any preceding part of the campaign, and although he wiſhed to be attacked in his encampment, yet he was ſo advantageouſly poſted, that policy forbad him to relinquiſh his ſituation. In this he was the more confirmed by the hope of being attacked. He could not think that general Howe had brought ſo powerful an army from Philadelphia for mere purpoſes of parade; and preſumed, therefore, that, rather than return without effecting any thing, he would venture to attack him under every diſadvantage. Finding the Britiſh general, however, cautious of engaging, and that he inclined to the left of the Americans, general Waſhington formed the daring deſign of attempting to ſurpriſe Philadelphia in the night; but, on the ninth of December, before this could be executed, the Britiſh retreated to the city, where they prepared to ſpend the winter.

Shortly after this, general Smallwood, with a conſiderable body of the American troops, was poſted at Wilmington, on the banks of the Delaware; and general Waſhington, with the main army, went into winter quarters at Valley-forge, ſixteen miles from Philadelphia. Many hundreds of the army were deſtitute of ſhoes and ſtockings, and might have been tracked on the froſt, from White-marſh to Valley-forge, by the blood of their feet. A great number of them were alſo without blankets. Under theſe diſtreſsful circumſtances, in the open woods, in the latter end of December, they were impelled by neceſſity to undertake a very unuſual mode of furniſhing themſelves with winter quarters. This was to erect huts for their accommodation. In theſe, many hundreds, who were almoſt deſtitute of clothes, and without blankets, were under the neceſſity, in the ſevereſt part of the winter, to ſit up all night by the fires, inſtead of enjoying reſt in the uſual way. The hardſhips they ſuſtained were ſo great, that their number was conſiderably reduced by ſickneſs and death. Yet ſuch was the ſpirit of the times, that both general and men cheerfully ſubmitted to every inconvenience, rather than retire to a more diſtant and comfortable ſituation, ſince this would leave the country expoſed to the depredations of the enemy.

(To be continued.)

Account *of* Jedediah Buxton—*a Man of extraordinary* Memory.

Biography furniſhes us with many inſtances of perſons remarkable for the ſtrength of their memories, which, when we reflect on the extent of that faculty in the generality of mankind, might be conſidered as fabulous, were not ſome of them too well atteſted to be doubted. Mithridates, who ruled over twenty-two nations, was acquainted with all their languages, and able to expreſs himſelf with fluency in each.—Hortenſius, one of the moſt celebrated orators of ancient Rome, had ſo happy a memory, that after ſtudying a diſcourſe, though he had not written down a ſingle word of it, he could repeat it exactly in the ſame manner in which he had compoſed it. His powers of mind in this reſpect were really aſtoniſhing, and we are told that in conſequence of a wager with one Sienna, he ſpent a whole day at an auction, and when it was ended, he recapitulated every article that had been ſold, together with the prices and the names of the purchaſers, in their proper order, without erring in one point, as was proved by the clerk, who followed him with his book. Lipſius, ſo celebrated for his erudition, remembered the whole hiſtory of Tacitus, and pledged himſelf to recite, word for word, any paſſage that might be required, conſenting, at the ſame time, to allow a perſon to ſtand by him with a dagger, and to plunge it into his body if he did not faithfully repeat the words of the author. Muret relates, that he dictated one day to a young Corſican, an innumerable multitude of Greek, Latin, and barbarous words, all diſtinct from each other, and that when he was tired of dictating, the Corſican repeated them without heſitation, in the ſame order, and then repeated them in a reverſed order, beginning at the laſt. Theſe examples are, no doubt, aſtoniſhing; but what is related of Jedediah Buxton, a poor, illiterate, Engliſh peaſant, ſeems to exceed them all.

John Buxton, the grandfather of this ſingular character, was vicar of Elmeton, a ſmall village, not far from Cheſterfield, in Derbyſhire; and his father, William Buxton, was ſchool-maſter of the ſame pariſh, where Jedediah was born, about the beginning of the preſent century.

Notwithſtanding the profeſſion of his father, Jedediah's education ſeems to have been totally neglected, for he was never taught either to read or write. How he came firſt to know the relative proportions of numbers, their powers and progreſſive denominations, he never could remember; but to theſe objects he applied the whole force of his mind, and upon theſe his attention was ſo conſtantly rivetted, that he frequently took no notice of external objects, and when he did, it was only with reſpect to their numbers. This propenſity of his mind to calculation manifeſted itſelf upon almoſt every occaſion, and ſeemed, like a kind of inſtinct, to turn his thoughts continually to this one point. If any ſpace of time was mentioned before him, he would ſoon afterwards ſay, that it contained ſo many minutes; and if any diſtance, he would aſſign the number of hair-breadths in it, even when no queſtion was aſked him by the company.

By this method, he greatly increaſed the powers of his memory with reſpect to figures, and ſtored up ſeveral common products in his mind,

ſuch as the number of minutes in a year; of hair-breadths in a mile; and many others, to which he could have immediate recourſe when neceſſary. When he once comprehended a queſtion, which he could not do without ſome difficulty, and after a certain length of time, he began to work with amazing facility, and would leave a long queſtion half wrought, and reſume it at the end of ſeveral months, beginning where he had broke off, and proceeding regularly till it was completed.

His memory, it appears, would have been equally retentive with reſpect to other objects, had he beſtowed the ſame attention upon them; but his perpetual application to figures, for which the powers of his mind ſeem to have been wonderfully calculated, prevented him from making the ſmalleſt acquiſition in any other branch of knowledge; and his ideas on that account were as confined perhaps as thoſe of a boy of ten years of age, in the ſame claſs of life.——He was ſometimes aſked, on his return from church, whether he remembered the text, or any part of the ſermon; but he never could repeat a ſingle word of either, ſo abſorbed had his thoughts been, even during divine ſervice, either in dividing ſome time or ſpace into the ſmalleſt known parts, or reſolving ſome problem that had been given him as a teſt of his abilities. His power of abſtraction was ſo great, that no noiſe whatever could diſturb him; and when aſked any queſtion, he would immediately reply, and return to his calculations, without any confuſion, or the loſs of more time than his anſwer required. His method of working was peculiar to himſelf, and by no means the ſhorteſt or cleareſt, as will appear by the following example:

Being required to multiply 456 by 378, he gave the product as ſoon as a perſon in the company had completed it in the common way, and when requeſted to work it audibly, that his method might be known, he multiplied 456 firſt by 5, which produced 2280; this he again multiplied by 20, and found the product 45600; which was the multiplicand multiplied by 100; this product he again multipled by 3, which produced 136,800, the ſum of the multiplicand multiplied by 300. It remained, therefore, to multiply this by 78, which he effected by multiplying 2280 (the product of the multiplicand multiplied by 5) by 15; 5 times 15 being 75; this product being 34,200, he added to the 136,800, which was the multiplicand multiplied by 300, and this produced 171,000, which was 375 times 456. To complete this operation, therefore, he multiplied 456 by 3, which produced 1368, and having added this number to 171,000, he found the product of 456 multiplied by 378, to be 172,368.

By this it appears that Jedediah's method of arithmetic was entirely his own, and that he was ſo little acquainted with the common rules, as to multiply 456 firſt by 5, and the product by 20, to find what ſum it would produce multiplied by 100; whereas had he added two cyphers to the figures, he would have obtained the product all at once.

A perſon who had heard of his aſtoniſhing performances, meeting with him accidentally, in order to try his calculating powers, propoſed to him the following queſtion: In a body whoſe three ſides are 23,145,789 yards, 5,642,732 yards, and 54,965 yards, how many cubical eighths of an inch? After once naming the ſeveral figures diſtinctly one after the other, in order to aſſure himſelf of the ſeveral dimenſions, and fix them in his mind, this ſelf-taught calculator immediately fell to work, amidſt more than an hundred of his fellow-labourers, and the propoſer

of the queſtion leaving him for about five hours, during which he calculated the anſwer with his pen, returned, and found Jedediah ready with his anſwer, which was proved to be exactly right.

Another perſon propoſed to him the following: Admit a field to be 423 yards long, and 383 wide, what is the area?——After the figures were read to him diſtinctly, he gave the true product, 162,009 yards, in the ſpace of two minutes, for the propoſer obſerved by his watch how long each operation took him. The ſame perſon aſked him, how many acres the ſaid field meaſured? and in eleven minutes he replied, 33 acres, 1 rood, 35 perches, 20 yards and a quarter. He was then aſked, how many barley-corns would reach eight miles. In a minute and a half he anſwered, 1,520,640 barley-corns. He was likewiſe aſked, ſuppoſing the diſtance between York and London to be 204 miles, how many times will a coach-wheel turn round in that ſpace, allowing the circumference of the wheel to be ſix yards? In thirteen minutes he anſwered, 59,840 times. The next propoſition was, if a tub or bin be 346 inches long, 256 inches wide, and 94 inches deep, how many gallons liquid meaſure will it hold, and what quantity of corn? His anſwer was, 3,454,464 ſolid inches, or 1,768,685,568 half quarters of ſolid inches, making 12,249,872 gallons liquid meaſure, or 12,249 gallons 3 quarts and 34½ inches; or 191 quarters 3 buſhels 3 quarterns, and a half quartern, remainder 34½ inches. He was then aſked, ſuppoſe a canal is to be dug 426 feet long, 263 wide, and two feet and a half deep, how many cubical yards of earth muſt be removed? After pauſing a quarter of an hour, he anſwered, 10,373 yards 24 feet.

He told the perſon who propoſed theſe queſtions to him, that from May the 17th, 1725, to June the 16th following, he was, according to his own expreſſion, *drunk* with reckoning by his memory, after which he ſlept ſoundly for ſeven hours: but he added, that he would never again attempt ſo much, for fear of falling into the ſame diſagreeable ſituation. What he meant by being drunk, undoubtedly was, that his ſenſes were ſo much ſtupified as to render him incapable of buſineſs; and that this ſhould be the caſe, will not appear at all wonderful, when we conſider the queſtion that engaged his attention, which was in 202,680,000,360 miles, and each mile reckoned to be cubical, how many barley corns, vetches, peas, wheat, oats, rye, beans, lintels, and hairs, each an inch long, would fill that ſpace, reckoning 48 hairs in breadth to an inch on the flat, as he found them to be?

Though theſe inſtances, which ſeem to be well authenticated, are ſufficient proofs of Jedediah's aſtoniſhing ſtrength of mind, for the further ſatisfaction of our curious readers, we ſhall ſubjoin the following. Being aſked, how long after the firing of one of the cannons at Retford, the report might be heard at Haughton Park, the diſtance being five miles, and ſuppoſing ſound to move at the rate of 1142 feet in one ſecond of time; he replied, after about a quarter of an hour, in 23 ſeconds 7 thirds, and that 46 remained. He was then aſked, admit 3584 brocoli plants are ſet in rows, four feet aſunder, and the plants ſeven feet apart, in a rectangular plot of ground, how much land will theſe plants occupy? In near half an hour, he ſaid 3 acres 1 rood 8 perches and a half.—The next queſtion, however, exerciſed all his faculties, and he declared it was the hardeſt he had ever met with, which evidently ſhews that he had

never applied his thoughts to the cube-root. This queſtion was, what dimenſions muſt be given to a joiner to make a cubical bin that ſhall hold juſt a quarter of malt, Wincheſter meaſure?—" Notwithſtanding the difficulty of this queſtion," ſays the propoſer, " Jedediah was very deſirous to anſwer it before it was too late in the evening, and after ſome time, he ſaid to himſelf, *there were nooks in it, but he would ſift them about.* He never regarded our talking, but ſat as one heedleſs of every thing about him, except his pot of beer, which he took notice of.

" I gave him no hints, help, or aſſiſtance, but left it entirely to himſelf, as I did the others, nor had he any thing in his hand to make any marks, (which I muſt repeat, becauſe he makes all his computations by his memory) and after about an hour, he told me it would be a little more than 25¾ inches on a ſide, and that 26 inches would be too much, all which is very true and exact."

This extraordinary man would ſtride over a piece of land or a field, and tell the contents of it with as much exactneſs as if he had meaſured it by the chain. In this manner he meaſured the whole lordſhip of Elmeton, of ſome thouſands of acres, belonging to Sir John Rhodes, and brought him the contents, not only in acres, roods and perches, but even in ſquare inches. After this he reduced them, for his own amuſement, into ſquare hair-breadths, computing about forty-eight to each ſide of the inch, which produced ſuch an incomprehenſible number as appeared altogether aſtoniſhing.

The only objects of Jedediah's curioſity, next to figures, were the king and royal family; and his deſire to ſee them was ſo ſtrong that in the beginning of ſpring, 1754, he walked up to London for that purpoſe, but was obliged to return diſappointed, as his Majeſty had removed to Kenſington, juſt as he arrived in town. He was, however, introduced to the Royal Society, whom he called the *Volk of the Siety Court.* The gentlemen who were then preſent, aſked him ſeveral queſtions in arithmetic, to prove his abilities, and diſmiſſed him with a handſome gratuity.

During his reſidence in London, he was carried to ſee the tragedy of King Richard III. performed at Drury-Lane play-houſe, and it was expected that the novelty of every thing in this place, together with the ſplendour of the ſurrounding objects, would have fixed him in aſtoniſhment, or that his paſſions would in ſome degree have been rouſed by the action of the performers, even if he did not fully comprehend the dialogue; but in the play-houſe Jedediah's thoughts were employed in the ſame manner as in church. During the dances, his attention was engaged in reckoning the number of ſteps. After a fine piece of muſic, he declared, that the innumerable ſounds produced by the inſtruments, perplexed him beyond meaſure; but he counted the words uttered by Mr. Garrick in the whole courſe of the entertainment; and affirmed, that in this he had perfectly ſucceeded.

The life of laborious poverty, which, for the moſt part, is equally uniform and obſcure, can afford little variety either to gratify curioſity, or ſwell the page of biography. The events of one day may exhibit a very juſt picture of thoſe of a whole ſeries of years; and this appears to be the caſe in reſpect to Jedediah Buxton, in whom time changed nothing but his age, nor did the ſeaſons vary his employment, except that in winter he uſed a flail, and in ſummer a ling-hook.

Born to no fortune, and brought up to no particular profeſſion, he ſupported himſelf by the labour of his hands, and though his talents, had they been properly cultivated, might have qualified him for acting a diſtinguiſhed part on the theatre of life, be purſued "the noiſeleſs tenor of his way," ſufficiently contented if he could gratify the wants of nature, and procure a daily ſubſiſtence for himſelf and family.

If his enjoyments were few, they ſeem to have been fully equivalent to his wiſhes. Though favoured by nature in a very ſingular manner, and though the powers of his mind raiſed him far above his humble companions, who earned their bread in the like manner, by the ſweat of their brow, ambitious thoughts never interrupted his repoſe, nor did he on his return from London, regret the loſs of any of thoſe delicacies which he had left behind him. Fully ſatisfied with his ruſtic fare, he deſpiſed the luxuries of the great, and while his chief pleaſure was to exerciſe his mind by calculation, he was ſtill of opinion that a ſlice of ruſty bacon afforded the moſt delicious repaſt. It is to ſuch characters as Buxton that the poet Gray alludes, in his Elegy in a Country Churchyard, where he ſays,

Full many a gem of pureſt ray ſerene,
The dark, unfathom'd caves of ocean bear:
Full many a flower is born to bluſh unſeen,
And waſte its ſweetneſs on the deſert air.

The following is an authentic letter written by a gentleman at Warwick, reſpecting this prodigy.

"I ſend you, agreeably to my promiſe, ſome account of that ſurprizing calculator Jedediah Buxton, a poor day labourer, who could neither read nor write, and yet, by the clearneſs of his head and amazing ſtrength of memory, was able to work the moſt intricate queſtions in arithmetic, and to ſolve the moſt difficult problems. When I ſaw him, which is now upwards of twenty years ago, he worked in the gardens of the late duke of Kingſton, at Thoreſby, in Nottinghamſhire; and I believe it was principally owing to that nobleman's gardener (a man well verſed in figures) that Jedediah's aſtoniſhing powers in calculation were firſt tried. He had been frequently told by his fellow labourers of this faculty, and they deſired the gardener to ſet him a queſtion, in order to try whether their report of him was true, which at laſt he did. The product of the queſtion propoſed conſiſted of thirty-ſix figures, and when he had finiſhed it, Jedediah aſked the gardener at which end he ſhould begin. Being told, he was aſked to call the figures over the contrary way, which he did without the leaſt heſitation. He was then deſired to multiply the thirty-ſix figures by the ſame thirty-ſix, which he performed perfectly correct. The gardener afterwards deſired he would inform him, how many ſquare yards Europe contained, which he alſo performed with great exactneſs; and at another time the old man undertook to calculate the ſquare hair-breadths in the pariſh of Balbour, in Derbyſhire, at the requeſt of a gentleman in that neighbourhood, which he executed to the entire ſatisfaction of his employer.

"Sometimes he would omit the cyphers in his calculations, which conſequently deranged the other figures, and put him wrong. He would

then ſeem much diſpleaſed with himſelf, but putting the fore finger of his right hand into the left, in a little time he would ſet himſelf right. In ſhort, his mind was as capacious as the ocean, for he would multiply any number of figures either by the whole or any part of them, and at different times, and ſtore up the various products in his memory, ſo as to give you the anſwers, though it were ſeveral months after. Nay, he would work at ſeveral queſtions at the ſame time, that is, firſt begin one, and work it half through, then another, and ſo on, working in this manner ſix or eight queſtions, and would, either as ſoon as finiſhed or ſeveral months after, tell the reſult.

" This extraordinary phenomenon was born at Elmeton, in Derbyſhire, and when this account was taken, viz. 14th January, 1764, at 38′ 43″ after three, P. M. he was, by his own calculation, fifty-ſix years, ten months, one week, two days, nine hours, fifty three minutes, and forty three ſeconds old. He calculated his age likewiſe in days, in hours, in minutes, and in ſeconds. When any perſon aſked him to calculate a queſtion, he would ſit down, take off his old brown hat, and reſting upon his ſtick, which was generally a very crooked one, he would ſet to work. He moſtly wore on his head either a linen or a woollen cap, with a handkerchief thrown careleſsly round his neck, and lived to about ſeventy years of age.

ANECDOTES.

AN honeſt tar hired a horſe to carry him a few miles, but before he had gone many yards, he found he poſſeſſed the uſual *excellencies* of the unfortunate four-footed hirelings of the road, ſuch as blindneſs, lameneſs, ſtumbling, &c. &c.—The ſailor, however (having been unſhipped twice with very little ceremony in the length of half a mile, by the creature's falling on its knees) hit upon a very whimſical mode of curing the impediment, which was by tying a large ſtone to the tail, and in that ſtate rode it ſeveral miles, ſwearing, " ſhiver his timbers, but it was the only thing to prevent the ſhip's going too much a head."

DOCTOR BARTON being in company with Doctor Naſh, who had juſt printed two heavy folios, containing the antiquities of Worceſterſhire, the warden humorouſly obſerved to the Doctor, that his publication was deficient in ſeveral reſpects. Dr. Naſh, as was but natural, endeavoured to defend his volumes in the beſt manner he was able. " Pray Doctor, are you not a juſtice of peace?" " I am," replied the Doctor. " Then," ſays Barton, " I adviſe you to ſend your work to the Houſe of Correction."

A LONDON rider, being at Exeter, left his dog in the ſtable by his horſe. The yard dog took offence at him, and beat him; upon which the former dog ſet out for London, and brought down another dog of his acquaintance, to revenge his cauſe. *A fact.*

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

IMPARTIAL REVIEW

Of American Publications.

The Office and Authority of a JUSTICE OF THE PEACE, *and of* SHERIFFS, CORONERS, *&c. According to the Laws of the State of* NORTH-CAROLINA. *By* FRANCOIS-XAVIER MARTIN, *Esquire. Attorney at Law.* Newbern.

THE author of this work has, in our opinion, rendered an essential service, not only to the magistrates of North-Carolina, but to the citizens at large, in presenting them with a valuable digest of the best English writers on the subject of which he treats, judiciously accommodated to the laws of that state. A work so well calculated to inform the inexperienced magistrate of his duty, and consequently to ensure a more salutary administration of justice, will doubtless experience a degree of public patronage proportioned to its merits. The importance of the office of a Justice of the Peace, and the necessity of his understanding the duties of his station, are well described by Mr. Martin, in his preface, which we shall take the liberty to transcribe.

If the interest which every individual has in the good execution of an office, is the criterion of its importance and the respectability of its holder, Justices of the Peace may be justly ranked among the principal officers of a Republic.

The Legislator, by dictating salutary laws, and the Soldier, by repelling the attacks of neighbouring foes, and commanding the respect of distant nations, will, no doubt, highly contribute to the prosperity of the Commonwealth : yet, every citizen will not immediately feel the benefits of their exertions ; neither would their contrary conduct essentially mar the situation of each of them.

But, there is not a man that dwells in the land, nor a traveller that sojourns an hour in it, who does not experience the advantages of the good administration of justice, faithful execution of the laws, and preservation of internal quiet. It is for the enjoyment of these that each citizen has reduced his natural, to a political, liberty. Of these, Justices of the Peace are dispensators, guardians, and preservators.

Important are these trusts. They involve duties of equal magnitude. Let the most confident tremble at the sad, but just idea, that a perfect discharge of these would require qualities, which man is not given to possess. But allowance being made for human frailties, a purity of heart, and coolness of temper will be sufficient, if ignorance and indolence be guarded against.

It is a fact much to be lamented, but not to be controverted, that many Magistrates who would shudder at the idea of deliberate wrong, often injure their neighbours through ignorance. Yet they need not resort to a Theologian, to be informed, that when an illiterate man accepts the office of a Justice, without endeavouring through all attainable means to shake off his pristine ignorance, the errors his want of knowledge leads him into, are equally criminal as wilful transgressions of the law.

Under these impressions, the compiler of the following work has been led to believe, that his fellow-citizens would receive very favourably every attempt to hold out, to the uninformed Justices and other Officers of the Peace, a clue to direct them

through the maze of intricacies into which the laws of this ſtate have been thrown by the political viciſſitudes that ſprang from the two revolutions, which the preſent generation has witneſſed.

In theſe ſheets, he has endeavoured to digeſt, under alphabetical heads, the duty and authority of a Juſtice of the Peace, &c. compiled from the Common Law and Statutes of England, the acts of the Legiſlature of this State, and Burns's, Nelſon's Dalton's, Parker's, and Davis's Juſtices, and the authorities quoted in thoſe books. The laſt gentleman's performance, being the moſt analogous to the practice of this country, has been cloſely attended to; and the preſent work ſhould not have been ſubſtituted to a ſecond edition of it, had not the many alterations it required precluded the idea of introducing it under Mr. Davis's name.

A SERMON *delivered in* HOPEWELL NEW-JERSEY, *on Thankſgiving Day, November 26th.* 1789. *By* OLIVER HART, A. M.

Exemplary piety and warm patriotiſm run through the whole of this Sermon. It is introduced with the following obſervations.

Every one that believes there is a God, who governs the world and ſuperintends the concerns of men, muſt be ſenſible, we are laid under the greateſt obligations to him, as that Almighty Being, in whoſe hands our breath is and from whom all our bleſſings flow. There are times and ſeaſons, however, which more immediately call us to the public exerciſes of adoration, praiſe, and thankſgiving. Such are our ſtated days of worſhip: and ſuch is the preſent day; being ſet apart by our worthy rulers for that purpoſe.

The reverend author, in enumerating the "great and marvellous things which God hath wrought" for the people of the united ſtates, dwells more particularly on the diſcovery and ſettlement of our country, on our happy emancipation from the oppreſſion of a foreign power, and the completion of this great revolution, by the eſtabliſhment of the preſent form of national government—topics well ſuited to the occaſion of a public thankſgiving to the diſpenſer of every public, as well as private bleſſing. Of the propriety of adverting to things of a ſecular nature, on ſuch public occaſions, our author juſtly obſerves.

Let none think I have forgot my office and deviated from my line of duty, by dwelling ſo much upon things of a ſecular nature: They are bleſſings from heaven and call aloud for thankfulneſs; to ſtimulate you thereto is my motive. Unthankfulneſs in the enjoyment of ſuch favours, is baſe ingratitude. It is highly diſpleaſing to the great donor of all good, and hath a tendency to bring down judgments upon our land.

He next endeavours to impreſs his audience with a due ſenſe of the ſpiritual bleſſings they enjoy, in having "the glorious goſpel preached in its purity;" and poſſeſſing perfect liberty of conſcience.

By demoliſhing this grand bulwark of religion, (the natural and inalienable right of all men) thouſands have been baptized in blood. It has been the ſole cauſe of all thoſe horrid perſecutions, which have ſo much diſgraced chriſtianity and ſet the world on fire Through mercy, the happy revolution has freed America from all religious teſts and eſtabliſhments. None may ſay unto us, *Lo here*, or *lo there*, you *ſhall* worſhip. Neither may they tax us for the ſupport of this, that, or the other religious ſociety, without our conſent.—Arbitrary uſurpations thoſe! which cannot fail of leaving an indelible blot on the eſcutcheons of the guilty. We may now read our bibles ourſelves, and worſhip our God according to the light conſcience thence derives, without moleſtation. *Surely according to this time it ſhall be ſaid of* America and her Children, *What hath God wrought!*

Having mentioned our plenteous harvests, and the singular example which our country exhibits, of never having experienced a real want of the necessaries of life, he makes the following reflections, which merit the serious attention of those, who, in the enjoyment of this blessing, are too apt to forget the source from which it is derived.

I hope none who hear me are so lost to a sense of divine providence, as to burn incense to their own net, and sacrifice to their own drag, by saying,—"I thank myself for the plentiful productions of my fields. My own industry, prudence and care have procured me my subsistence." With equal propriety might they thank themselves for their existence. Persons of this cast would do well to consider, whence they derive their wisdom, strength, and disposition to attend to business. Should the Almighty restrain the bottles of heaven from pouring out their blessings on the earth, can they command the clouds to send rain? Or should he send blasting or mildew, can they prevent their destructive influences? What hinders but that God might now, as heretofore, raise an army of locusts or caterpillers, which would destroy all before them? We have seen what an insignificant insect can do in our wheat. A like enemy, with a similar commission, might have deprived us of all manner of sustenance. I conclude, therefore, that the plenty we enjoy, both as to food and raiment, cometh down from the Father of mercies; and that we have reason to say in this case also, *What hath God wrought!*

Mr. H. concludes with a suitable application, in which he earnestly endeavours to inculcate the practice of those great, moral, religious, and social duties, which form the basis of public and private happiness, and lead to the mansions of eternal bliss.

A SYSTEM OF SURGERY, *Extracted from the Works of* BENJAMIN BELL, *of Edinburgh. By* NICHOLAS B. WATERS, M. D. *Fellow of the College of Physicians of Philadelphia, and one of the Physicians and Surgeons to the Philadelphia Dispensary.—Illustrated with* NOTES *and* COPPERPLATES.—One Vol. 8vo.—Philad.—Two dollars and a half.

MR. Bell's system of surgery, from the diffuse manner in which it is both written and printed, is so expensive and unwieldy, that this abridgement, which contains, in substance, every practical observation that is to be found in the original work, merits the attention of those who wish to avoid an unnecessary expence of money or of time. "Those who cannot readily conceive, says Dr. Waters, in his preface, that the essential parts of a performance of seven volumes can be comprised in a single one of the same size, will please to consider, that this one volume, from the manner in which it is printed, contains at least as much as any two of the original; and that the anotomical descriptions, descriptions of operations and practices, which are, at present, seldom, if ever employed, theoretical discussions, and repetitions, which, taken together, occupy no small part in the work of Mr. Bell, are entirely omitted."

Some articles have been spun out to such an extravagant length by Mr. Bell, that there was ample room for Dr. Waters to display a talent for condensing, which he appears to have exercised very successfully. Of this the article of *blood-letting*, which occupies *one hundred*

pages in the ſyſtem of Mr. Bell, and no more than *ſixteen* in that of Dr. Waters, affords a ſtriking inſtance.

We are informed, in the preface, that the late Dr. Jones, whoſe eminence as a ſurgeon is well known, peruſed this work in manuſcript, and added ſome uſeful notes, the reſult of his long experience. Dr. Waters has alſo added many valuable notes, chiefly extracted from authors of merit, whoſe works are not very generally known in the united ſtates; many of his notes, however, are given upon the authority and experience of ſundry phyſicians and ſurgeons of eminence in this city. The addition of theſe is a conſiderable advantage which this ſyſtem enjoys over the original work.

This volume contains twelve *plates*, repreſenting the various inſtruments uſed in ſurgery.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

(Concluded from page 192.)

SIR,

PASSING ſome other ſtrictures of the reviewer, which appear to me not juſt, I proceed to his cenſure of my ſtile. The language of my Eſſays, ſays the reviewer, "is, in many parts of the work, vulgar and uncouth; in others, it is obſolete; in ſome it is *new*; and, in a variety of inſtances, *barbarouſly incorrect*." That my language is, in ſome places, vulgar and uncouth, I ſhall not deny; but I believe, it is never ſo, except when the nature, ſubject, and deſign of the eſſay required it to be ſo. At leaſt I have never heard that readers in general have found fault with it on that account. As to the charge of *barbarous incorrectneſs*, I am not diſpoſed to admit it, without limitation. I will however concede that a few inaccuracies eſcaped my notice, and I am much obliged to the reviewer for pointing them out. In the order the reviewer has noticed examples of what he calls *inaccuracies*, the firſt, eighteenth, thirtieth, thirty-ſixth, thirty-ninth, and forty-ſecond and third examples, are acknowledged to be incorrect: they are therefore to be carried to the account of negligence or overſight. And who is free from all liability to errors? In the third example, *undiſguiſed* is put for *undiſguiſing*, whether by my miſtake or not, I am not certain.

The fourth and fifth, together with the eighth and ninth, are not my *own* miſtakes, (if they are miſtakes). They occur in letters written *to* me, which I choſe ſhould appear in their original language.

The twentieth and twenty-ſeventh are both errors of the preſs, as the manuſcript will ſhow.

In the ſecond example, *happified* may be a *new* word to the reviewer, but it is an *old* word to me; and being well coined, and current in the part of the country where I live, I cannot conſent to call it an *inaccuracy*. The ſixth inſtance is my uſe of the word *conduct*, without its object or accuſative caſe. "It is a ſhame," ſays the reviewer, "for the author of a Grammar not to know the difference between a tranſitive and intranſitive verb." True; but when the *reviewer* ſhall *review*

his remarks, after a few years of experience, I am perſuaded he will be *aſhamed* of this and ſome others. To make a ſuppoſition, the moſt improbable, and which few or none will believe, and found a triumph on that ſuppoſition, muſt afford a very pitiful ſatisfaction to a critic. I flatter myſelf that I have a competent knowledge of the diſtinction he mentions—*I even doubt his ability to inſtruct me. Conduct* is uſually a tranſitive verb, but like *act*, and moſt other tranſitive verbs, it may be uſed intranſitively, and often is. It is often ſaid, a man *acts* like a fool; or he *conducts* like a fool; *himſelf* might well follow theſe verbs; but I maintain that when the *act affirmed* terminates on the *agent;* that is, when the *agent* and *object* are the *ſame perſon*, the *neutral* or *intranſitive* form, is much the *moſt correct*. The *objective* caſe is wholly *uſeleſs*, to ſay the leaſt. The French always uſe the accuſative, and call the verb, in this form, a *reciprocal* verb. Our idiom does not require it. The pronoun is always omitted after *act*, and in New-England, after *conduct*.

The reviewer ſays, this expreſſion, in his ſeventh quotation, " his *ſtanding* in life," is *vulgar, uncouth*, and *incorrect*. It is to be wiſhed, the reviewer would " deliver his opinions with a leſs dictatorial air;" and aſſign his reaſons, as I have been bred in a country where *mere opinion* does not always paſs for *fact*.

The tenth example does not appear to me to be incorrect; but with reſpect to this phraſe, to *venture an opinion*, and many others which are arranged under the head of *inaccuracies*, the reviewer has not ventured to give his opinion.

The twelfth inſtance, " *then* is the time," is cenſured for the uſe of the adverb *then* inſtead of *that*. By this criticiſm, and ſeveral others, the real character of the reviewer is exhibited in a ſtriking view. He muſt be ſome perſon who has lately left a grammar ſchool, who has learnt to ſpeak by *ſquare* and *compaſs*, who ſuppoſes the language to be made by *grammar rules*, and not thoſe rules by ſettled practice, and thus believes every expreſſion for which he has no grammar rule, is not good Engliſh. I am not ſurpriſed to find him thus fettered by arbitary rules. Our Colleges are in the ſame ſituation, and ſo are moſt of the public ſeminaries in Great Britain. I was in the ſame ſituation myſelf, while my enquiries reſpecting language were confined to dictionaries and grammars. I finally deſerted them, and attempted to examin the authorities on which Johnſon, Lowth, and other compilers have built their opinions. The reſult was, that I found inconteſtible evidence to overthrow one half of the rules of the Engliſh grammars now in uſe; and a multitude of phraſes of good Engliſh, for which theſe grammars give us *no rules at all*. The phraſes, *then* is the *time*, *now* is the *time*, come within the laſt mentioned deſcription. They are as correct phraſes as any in the language. To ſatisfy a little pedantic critic of the propriety of them, the phraſes might be altered thus, *the time is now*, or *was then;* for *now* and *then* are in ſenſe mere abreviations of the *preſent time* or *paſt time*. But to a man who is not fettered by rules, in caſes where rules are imperfect, or arbitrary, the phraſes appear vindicable on the ground of *ſettled, general, immemorial practice*, the *only* ground on which *all* grammars muſt ſtand, if they have any ſupport but private opinion.

The ſeventeenth example quoted, I diſlike; I wiſh the phraſe had been different.

The nineteenth, twenty-second, twenty-third, twenty-fifth, twenty-sixth, twenty-eighth, thirty-fifth, thirty-seventh, thirty-eighth, fortieth, and forty-first examples appear to me sufficiently correct and intelligible. They express my meaning in a manner that I am not ashamed of. Some of them are certainly good English—"to beat a challenge," is no inelegant metaphor, and every common soldier understands its propriety.

Several of the phrases, numbered by the reviewer among the inaccuracies, are technical, and found in law-writers of the first eminence. "To *compel an agreement among men*," is one of these.

"The legal and proper mode of *compelling a sale* by the sheriff, *where* he makes delay, or refuses, is by writ of venditioni exponas."—Cowper's Reports. 406. L. Mansfield.

"It is his duty to issue out process against the several defendants, in order to *compel an appearance*." Attorney's Prac. in K. Bench. 52.

"If an action had been brought by the defendant to *compel the delivery* of the rest of the tobacco—" 1 Durn. and East. 226.

If the phrase is wrong and inaccurate, I hope the reviewer will no longer dispute with *me*, but point his attacks at my authorities.

The following expression is censured for the use of the word *where*, as referring to *auction*—"In most states, lands are sold *at auction*, *where* they are sacrificed." The reviewer's head is so full of his distinctions between *parts of speech*, that he is at war with the poor adverb *where*, because it does not refer to the *name of a place*. Let him then compare that sentence of mine with the following:

"No *authority* whatever has been mentioned, nor *case* cited, *where* it has been held that a penal action is a criminal case." Cowp. Rep. 392. L. Mansfield.

"There is a material distinction between this and the *instances* alluded to at the bar, *where* the plaintiff is allowed to wave the trespass." Cowp. Rep. 419.

"In an *action of waste*, *where*—" 1 Durnford's Rep. 69.

"The same doctrine holds in *quare impedit*, *where* damages are given by statute." P. 70.

What will the reviewer say to these passages? Are the words *case*, *instances*, *action*, names of places! What a pity that Lord Mansfield and the Reporters never studied grammar! But luckily I have an authority more directly in point, for it mentions a *sale at auction*, and the word *where* is used by Lord Mansfield as referring to it.——

"We all remember the *sale* of a gentleman's wines, *where* vast quantities were sent in, belonging to other persons." Cowper, 397.

—"At a *value* which shall be *apprised*," is censured as incorrect. But *value* and *price* are not, as the reviewer supposes, the same thing. In strict, literal, and commercial construction, the *price* of goods is often above or below their *real value*. I am not satisfied that *to apprise the value* of a thing is incorrect, though to *apprise the price* of an article would be nonsense. At any rate, the best practice sanctions the phrase I have used.

"According to the *appraised value*," is an expression used in Atkin's Reports, p. 454, and I conceive it to be correct.

—"To find *relief against* the oppressor," is numbered by the reviewer as another inaccuracy; and serves to show that he is a man whose reading

has not been extenſive. The phraſe is one of the moſt frequent in the language, eſpecially in proceedings in equity and in the chancery reports.

"This court will conſtrue it a dureſs and *relieve againſt a conveyance*, executed under ſuch circumſtances." Atkin's Reports, 1. 477.

"The court of chancery would have *relieved him againſt the defendant*." Doug. Rep. 89.

"*Eſtates liable for debt*," is alſo numbered among the inſtances of *barbarous incorrectneſs*. It is ſurpriſing that any man of twenty-five years old could have overlooked this phraſe both in books and practice.

"In this caſe the huſband ſhall have all the value of his wife's eſtate, and yet in law, not be *liable for her debts*." Godolph. Orph. Leg. 198.

—"*Liable* for the due payment of a note." Cowp. 460.

"I am by expreſs ſtipulation *liable* only *for* 20*l*." Henry Black. Rep. 300. Lord Mansfield.

"The whole queſtion is who ſhall be *liable* for coſts." Same. Aſhurſt Juſtice.

I can produce a thouſand inſtances of the ſame phraſe, if neceſſary. It is technical, and like moſt ſuch phraſes, is uſed for the ſake of brevity and preciſion. The following ſentence will prove this:

"Hague was liable *to* De Silva *for* the amount of the notes—De Silva was liable *to* him *for* the amount of his third ſhare." Cowp. 471.

We uſe anſwerable in the ſame manner—

"She ſhall be anſwerable *for* ſuch maintenance." 1 Durn. 8.

The thirty firſt example, mentioned by the reviewer, is not an inſtance of incorrectneſs; though *from*, in that inſtance, would have been more perſpicuous. *Of* and *from* may either of them be uſed after *purchaſe*, whether a noun or a verb.

"The defendant, Fenton, purchaſed a quantity of linen *of* the plaintiff, Truman. Cowp. 544.

"In purchaſing ſo large a quantity of linen *of* him." P. 545.

In the ſtate where I live, *of* and *from* are both uſed, and ſuch language is not "diſgraceful."

The reviewer ridicules the following uſe of the word *cover*; "Mr. Penn's grant *covered* lands."—He is welcome to all the ſatisfaction and honour he can derive from his own deriſion; but his ridicule will neither prove the expreſſion inaccurate, nor diſcountenance the uſe of it. Merchants will ſtill continue to ſay, "A ſhip and cargo are *covered* by a policy of inſurance;" and lawyers will indulge themſelves in ſaying, that "*Grants* and *patents cover* certain *tracts of land*." "To *cover* the whole of their intereſt by a freſh *inſurance*." 1 Durn. 307.

"The only doubt he had, was, as to the clearing of the ſhip, and having arms on board, and that part of the bill he thought afterwards might be *covered* with the *plea*." 1 Atkin's Rep. 64.

The thirty-third example is peculiarly offenſive to the reviewer. "To be *quieted* in their poſſeſſions;" "a law to *quiet* thoſe who were actual ſettlers"—are *blunders* ſo *ſhocking*," ſays the reviewer, "as to be unparalleled even among the *inaccuracies* of Mr. Webſter." But when the reviewer has read more, and acquired more moderation of temper, he will be aſhamed of his aſſertion. This uſe of *quiet* is not only correct, but exceedingly common, and a man, who has not heard it in converſa-

tion, nor ſeen it in books of authority, is certainly a man of little reading, and very limited acquaintance with the world.

" The plaintiff, in his replication, ſet forth the ſtatute of 5 George I. Ch. 6. Sect. 1. for *quieting* and eſtabliſhing corporations." Cowp. Rep. 393. note.

" There is no ſtatute or fixed rule of limitation, as to the length of time which ſhould ſuffice to *quiet* the *poſſeſſions* of theſe offices." 1 Burrow's Rep. 434.

" A bill was brought in this court to *quiet* the plaintiff, in a right of fiſhery in the river Ouſe." 1 Atkin's Rep. 330. Ed. 1781.

"—And an injunction here would not *quiet* the poſſeſſion."—P. 331.

" The plaintiff brought a bill to be *quieted* in the poſſeſſion of it."—2 Atkin's Rep. 499.

A thouſand examples of the ſame phraſes might be produced, but with theſe I ſhall leave the reviewer to his own reflections, on my " ſhocking blunders."

The thirty-fourth example, " large grants of land were *carved* out to individuals," the reviewer ſneeringly denominates " an elegant metaphor truly and well applied." Yes, ſir, to be ſerious, it is both *elegant* and *well applied.*

" The fee ſimple or inheritance of lands and tenements is generally veſted and reſides in ſome perſon or other; though divers inferior eſtates may be carved out of it." 2 Black. Com. Ch. 7.

Without multiplying authorities, I ſhall only notice the reviewer's remarks on the fifteenth example, " a man ſhall *not* take *but* ſix per cent." " If this be either correct or intelligible," ſays the reviewer moſt dogmatically, " there is no poſſibility of being incorrect or unintelligible. A haſty peremptory deciſion this, and ſavoring much of the *young* man.

Can it be news to the reviewer, that *four fifths* of the Engliſh nation and their deſcendants in the United States, invariably uſe this mode of expreſſion? This is the fact, and moſt certainly *they* underſtand it. But the fact is, neither the reviewer nor the inſtructors of youth generally underſtand the word *but* in its true primitive ſignification. Not one of the compilers of dictionaries and grammars underſtand its derivative meaning; the rev. Mr. Horne Took was the firſt man that ever explained it; but his explanation is juſt beyond all controverſy, and ſo is his general *theory of particles.* Of this I have found demonſtrative evidence in the writings of the fourteenth century; though our Univerſities and Colleges either do not know or totally neglect the very valuable diſcoveries unfolded in his " Diverſions of Purley."

But has two ſignifications, *more*, or *further*, and *except*; being uſed for two Saxon words, *bote* and *beut.* The laſt is the word in queſtion, and ſignifies *except.* Any *other* ſenſe annexed to the word by the moderns, is a corruption. The true ſenſe of it appears in theſe phraſes;

"—Where *none* will ſweat *but* for promotion." Shakeſpear.

" There was *no* other evidence, *but* letters."— 1 Durn. 181.

And in the common phraſes, " there is *nothing*, *but* confuſion," " there is *not* a man preſent *but* the ſpeaker." Here the Saxon *but* anſwers exactly to the Latin *except.* Leave out the negative, and you convert the phraſes into nonſenſe. " Where *one* will ſweat, *but* for promotion." " There is a man preſent, *but*, (except) the ſpeaker." " There is *but*

confuſion," that is, " there is *except* confuſion." It is juſt ſo with the phraſe in queſtion. " A man ſhall *not* take, *but* (except) ſix per cent." That is, " *except*, take away, ſix per cent. and he ſhall take nothing." But let it read thus, " A man ſhall take, *but* (except) ſix per cent," and the meaning of the paſſage is totally changed. Such is the effect of an ignorance of our Saxon etymologies! The *vulgar* preſerve the language *pure*, in many inſtances, where the *learned* have *corrupted* it.

I will cloſe this defence with a few general remarks.

The reviewer triumphs in an opportunity of making *verbal criticiſms* on my writings becauſe I have " pretended to an uncommon knowledge of our language, and have cenſured the ſtile of others with unmerited ſeverity." He charges me with *arrogance and preſumption* in " attempting innovations, calculated to deſtroy the purity of our language, and to change it into a mere unintelligible jargon." Theſe are harſh accuſations, and, unſupported by proof, will not paſs for truth. The misfortune is, I do not rely on *dictionaries* and *grammars* for rules of ſpeaking and writing; I have gone back to the early writers, and tracing the language down through ſeveral centuries, have diſcovered evidence, which, to my mind, is *demonſtration*, that many of the criticiſms and rules of Harris, Johnſon, Lowth, Harriſon, Aſh, and others are not well founded; but are calculated to introduce and have actually introduced, ſome *innovations* which *corrupt the purity* of our language. My attempts are not to *make* innovations, but to diſcountenance thoſe made by *others* and to bring back the language to its *former purity*. In attempting this, I have labored to avoid the imputation of impoſing my own dogmas on the public, by producing authorities of the utmoſt weight and reſpectability to ſupport my opinions. I have not, perhaps, in a ſingle inſtance, committed my opinions to the public without proof, at leaſt I endeavoured to offer proofs of all my *novel* opinions. Theſe, for the moſt part, may be found in the Diſſertations.

This I call a *misfortune*; for I have not yet ſeen a man who is willing to go thro' the ſame or a ſimilar proceſs of enquiry; and the conſequence is, the ſingularity of ſome of my opinions prevents their being ſupported by many good judges of the ſubject in general. Had my opinions fallen in with the current of modern authorities, it would have been more for my preſent intereſt and reputation; but I reſt ſatisfied with this reflection, that I have publiſhed the *truth*, and that probably further inveſtigation will ſupport my opinions.

I however expect that my publications will be treated with very little candor by a numerous claſs of people in Pennſylvania, who have formed an opinion unfavourable to my character. The indiſcretions of a young man, afloat in the world under the impulſe of warm paſſions, and without the aſſiſtance of experience, among ſtrangers, and expoſed to popular obſervation, muſt be numerous and viſible; and cannot fail to form, in the minds of men, prejudices, which nothing but a long future acquaintance with the man, at a maturer period of his life, can effectually remove. Age and experience cool the paſſions, and diſpoſe perſons to treat the frailties of human nature with great allowances and much moderation. Should this be the caſe with the reviewer, he will probably feel the ſame degree of regret for ſome of the remarks he has made on my Eſſays, that I do already for the indiſcretions of my youth.

N. WEBSTER.

REMARKS *on* MR. WEBSTER'S LETTER.

HAVING ſo far evinced our impartiality as to publiſh the preceding letter, notwithſtanding the indecent manner in which ſome parts of it are written, we ſhall take the liberty to add a few remarks on the matter it contains, and then bid a final adieu to the "*Fugitiv Eſſays*" of Mr. Webſter.

We are charged by Mr W. with having miſrepreſented his meaning, in ſundry parts of the *Review* of his Eſſays, which was publiſhed in the Aſylum, for October and November, 1790.—This is a ſerious charge; and did we conceive it to be well-founded, we ſhould not heſitate a moment to acknowledge the juſtice of it, and to apologize for ſo glaring a deviation from our duty, as *impartial* reviewers. But, upon a careful review of our former remarks, we find no cauſe for ſuch an apology; on the contrary, we can with confidence call upon thoſe who have read Mr. W's Eſſays and our review, to ſay whether we have been deficient in candour or impartiality. As for thoſe inſtances which Mr. W mentions in his letter, we do not apprehend that they will in any degree ſupport the charge of miſrepreſentation.

His objection to the uſe of the bible, as a ſchool-book, was founded upon the ſuppoſed principle that familiarity begets diſreſpect. In expoſing the fallacy of this ſtrange opinion, were we guilty of miſrepreſentation?

In defending the exiſtence of certain fanciful laws of nature, reſpecting the marriage of natural relations, Mr. W. has involved himſelf in the moſt ridiculous abſurdities. He inſiſts that we miſtook his meaning in the caſe we mentioned as an objection to his opinion, and goes on to give us reaſons why an *uncle* may marry his *niece*. We hope he will excuſe us, if we here throw a new ſtumbling-block in his way—Will not his ſuppoſed law of nature, which *tolerates* the marriage of an *uncle* and *niece*, *prohibits* that of an *aunt* and *nephew*, although the degree of conſanguinity, in both caſes, is the ſame?

The illiberality of his aſſertion reſpecting the comparative number of vagabonds in Baltimore and N. England, we juſtly reprobated. He complains, however, that our cenſure was uncandid, inaſmuch as he did not ſpeak with *certainty*, but only ſaid he was "inclined to believe;" yet he now ſays, "I am *perſuaded*, from long and careful obſervation, that the opinion is *well-founded*."

In denying that "his rule was to form a *general* character of the people among whom he travelled from the ſpecimens he met with in taverns," he makes a moſt pedantic diſplay of his *logical* knowledge; and yet, from a re-peruſal of his miſcellaneous remarks, we are ſtill "inclined to believe" that ſuch was his rule, and that his boaſted *logic* deſerted him, on more than one occaſion, in the courſe of his *travels*.

In his eſſays, he advocates the reaſonableneſs and propriety of *compelling every man* to attend public worſhip, and to contribute to the ſupport of the clergy. This, we conceive, would be exerciſing a very dangerous and arbitrary power, not only over the *perſons* and *purſes*, but over the *conſciences* of men, and could not fail to render religion, as well as the civil authority, odious.

In his letter, he tells us that he is not an advocate for the eſtabliſhment of any particular religious denomination; but becauſe *clergymen* are a uſeful "order of men," he would have a legal proviſion made for their ſupport, without diſtinction. We ſhould like to ſee his plan for eſtabliſhing religion in this way. Allowing "liberty of conſcience" to each individual, we are apprehenſive that, from the great variety of religious tenets that prevail in various parts of the country, his eſtabliſhed clergy muſt, neceſſarily, be very numerous, and burthenſome to the public; for it is not reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that he would exclude even Jemimah Wilkinſon from ſharing in a legal proviſion for the *clergy of all denominations*. It would afford us ſome degree of conſolation to find that Mr. Webſter's opinion reſpecting religious eſtabliſhments once coincided with ours, were we not mortified by the reflection, that the experience he acquired during his *travels*, which he very triumphantly contraſts with the limited obſervation of us poor *untravelled* reviewers, has produced in his mind an entire revolution of ſentiment on this ſubject. He therefore tells us, that, from obſerving the "comparative manners of the people in thoſe *ſtates*, *who* (the *ſtates*) have generally attended or generally neglected public worſhip," he is now convinced of the propriety of making a *legal* proviſion for the clergy. Here we would juſt hint, but with very profound

ſubmiſſion to this all-ſufficient *ſage**; that he appears in this place to have forgot his *logic*. Was there *no other* cauſe but the *one* aſſigned by him for the difference he mentions? If not, how comes it that the ſociety of Quakers lead in general exemplary lives, and are ſuch orderly members of ſociety as they are univerſally known to be? They have no eſtabliſhed clergy. But let us, for a moment, ſuppoſe attendance or non-attendance upon public worſhip, to be the *ſole* cauſe of the difference he mentions; will it follow that a legal proviſion for the clergy, and a law *compelling every man* to attend public worſhip, would produce the deſired reform? We fear they would not.

Mr. Webſter, in his defence of the ſtile of his eſſays, diſcovers an extraordinary degree of obſtinacy, if not of ignorance of the principles and genius of the Engliſh language. He admits that his language is, in ſome places, "vulgar and uncouth," but believes "it is never ſo except when the nature, ſubject and deſign of the eſſay required it to be ſo."—An admirable apology, to be ſure, for *vulgarity* and *uncouthneſs!* The charge of *incorrectneſs* he is very unwilling to admit; yet he ſo far aſſumes an appearance of candour, as to acknowledge that ſome of the examples quoted in our review are incorrect. Theſe, however, are the moſt trifling of the errors which were pointed out. Thoſe of greater magnitude he attempts to defend. Some are *aſſerted* to be correct; others are ſaid to be juſtified by the general practice in N. England; a few are charged to the printer's account of errors, although no notice has been taken of them in the errata; and an hoſt of *law-authorities* are quoted in ſupport of the remainder.

To trace him minutely, in this part of his letter, might well ſuit a *grammatical pedant*, like himſelf, but would be a taſk far beneath the pen of manly criticiſm. Suffice it to obſerve, generally, that *his aſſertion* cannot be conſidered as authority ſufficient to give currency to phraſes, which almoſt every *ſchool-boy* knows to be incorrect; that a peculiar practice in Connecticut, or even in the whole of N. England, is not ſufficient to juſtify his uſe of the word *conduct*, &c. and that he diſcovers ſome *originality* of thought, in having recourſe to the technical phraſeology of the law, as a model of ſtile!

We would recommend to Mr. Webſter's attention another claſs of authors, whoſe works will furniſh him with a valuable collection of rare phraſes, for his next volume, ſhould he condeſcend to "happify" the world by the publication of another; we mean the medical writers, particularly thoſe who wrote before the middle of the preſent century. As for grammar rules, unleſs they are of his own forming, it would very much curb his genius to pay any attention to them. We hope, therefore, he will continue to treat the whole tribe of Engliſh grammarians and lexicographers with the contempt of a man who is conſcious of his own ſuperiority. But, above all, if he wiſhes to perfect his ſtile, upon the plan he has ſo well begun, he muſt ſtudiouſly avoid even the moſt diſtant attention to the writings of Swift, Bolingbroke, Addiſon, or any of thoſe Engliſh authors whoſe ſtile is admired by us reviewers, and by ſuch other vulgar judges as know no better.

Mr. Webſter, near the concluſion of his letter, tells us, that the paſſions of youth ſubſide and grow cool at a more mature age. This *diſcovery* he mentions for the purpoſe of paying an indirect compliment to himſelf, on that contrition which he now feels for the *indiſcretions* of his youth; and to ſhow the probability of our hereafter experiencing ſimilar feelings, when we ſhall review our remarks upon his eſſays. What his youthful indiſcretions may have been we know not; nor is it, perhaps, of much importance to us, or to the world, to be informed; but if we may judge of his repentance from the obſtinacy with which he labours to defend the errors and illiberal remarks contained in his eſſays, it cannot be very ſincere. With reſpect to ourſelves, we neither pretend nor wiſh to be totally free from thoſe paſſions which are incident to humanity, and which may be employed to the nobleſt as well as to the vileſt of purpoſes. The love of truth, however, was the only paſſion that guided our pen, when we were engaged in the review of Mr. Webſter's eſſays; and, although more than twelve months have ſince elapſed, we have not yet experienced any of thoſe qualms of conſcience to which Mr Webſter alludes; nor do we wiſh to retract a ſingle remark contained in that review.

* *In two or three parts of his letter, he ſneeringly attributes our review of his eſſays to ſome* young *man, and ſeems to think that it is a* crime *to be* young.

find them reduced to eighty, and one hundred, the inhabitants of New-England beginning now to ſupplant them. A little before this, the Britiſh parliament, perceiving that their citizens were unable to ſubſiſt on the ſcanty profits which ſufficed for their poorer competitors, endeavoured to give them ſome advantage by prohibiting the importation of foreign fiſh: and, at the cloſe of the century, they formed ſome regulations for their government and protection; and remitted to them ſome duties. A ſucceſsful war enabled them in 1713, to force from the French, a ceſſion of the iſland of Newfoundland. Under theſe encouragements, the Engliſh and American fiſheries began to thrive. In 1731, we find the Engliſh take two hundred thouſand kentals of fiſh, and the Americans two hundred and thirty thouſand, beſides the refuſe fiſh, not fit for European markets. They continue to gain ground, and the French to loſe it, inſomuch, that about 1755, they are ſaid to have been on a par: and, in 1768, the French had only two hundred and fifty-nine veſſels, of twenty-four thouſand four hundred and twenty tons, nine thouſand ſeven hundred and twenty-two ſeamen, taking two hundred thouſand kentals, while America, alone, for ſome three or four years before that, and ſo on to the commencement of the late war, employed ſix hundred and ſixty-five veſſels, of twenty-five thouſand ſix hundred and fifty tons, and four thouſand four hundred and five ſeamen, and took from three hundred and fifty thouſand, to upwards of four hundred thouſand kentals, of fiſh, and England a ſtill greater quantity, five hundred and twenty-ſix thouſand kentals, as is ſaid.

Spain had formerly relinquiſhed her pretenſions to a participation in theſe fiſheries, at the cloſe of the preceding war; and, at the end of this, the adjacent continent and iſlands being divided between the united ſtates, the Engliſh and French, (for the laſt retained two ſmall iſlands merely for this object) the right of fiſhing was appropriated to them alſo.

France, ſenſible of the neceſſity of balancing the power of England on the water, and, therefore, of improving every reſource for raiſing ſeamen, and ſeeing that her fiſhermen could not maintain their competition without ſome public patronage, adopted the experiment of bounties on her own fiſh, and duties on that of foreign nations, brought into her markets. But notwithſtanding this, her fiſheries dwindle, from a change taken place, inſenſibly, in the character of her navigation, which, from being the moſt economical, is now become the moſt expenſive. In 1786, ſhe is ſaid to have employed but ſeven thouſand men in this fiſhery, and to have taken four hundred and twenty-ſix thouſand kentals: and in 1787, but ſix thouſand men, and one hundred and twenty-eight thouſand kentals. She ſeems not yet ſenſible that the unthriftineſs of her fiſheries proceeds from the want of economy, and not the want of markets; and that the encouragement of our fiſhery abridges that of a rival nation, whoſe power on the ocean has long threatened the loſs of all balance on that element.

The plan of the Engliſh government, ſince the peace, has been to prohibit all foreign fiſh in their markets, and they have given from eighteen to fifty pounds ſterling, on every fiſhing veſſel complying with certain conditions. This policy is ſaid to have been ſo far ſucceſsful, as to have raiſed the number of ſeamen employed in that buſineſs in 1786, to fourteen thouſand, and the quantity of fiſh taken, to ſeven hundred and thirty-two thouſand kentals. The table No. 1, hereto annexed, will preſent to the eye, this hiſtory more in detail.

The fiſheries of the united ſtates, annihilated during the war; their veſſels, utenſils, and fiſhermen deſtroyed; their markets in the Mediterranean and Britiſh-America loſt; their produce dutied in thoſe of France; their competitors enabled by bounties to meet and underſell them at the few markets remaining open; without any public aid, and indeed, paying aids to the public. ſuch were the hopeleſs auſpices under which this important buſineſs was to be reſumed. Yet it was reſumed, and, aided by the mere force of natural advantages, they employed, during the years 1786,--7,--8,--9, on an average, five hundred and thirty-nine veſſels, of nineteen thouſand one hundred and eighty-five tons, three thouſand two hundred and eighty-ſeven ſeamen, and took two hundred and fifty thouſand ſix hundred and fifty kentals of fiſh: (ſee Number 2.) and an official paper (Number 3.) ſhews that in the laſt of thoſe years, our exportation amounted to three hundred ſeventy-five thouſand and twenty kentals, and thirty thouſand four hundred ſixty-one barrels, deduction made of three thouſand ſeven hundred and one kentals, and ſix thouſand three hundred and forty-three barrels of foreign fiſh received and re-exported. (See No. 4.) Still however, the calculations in No. 5. which accompany the repreſentation, ſhew, that the profits of the ſales in the years

1787,—8, were too ſmall to afford a living to the fiſhermen, and on thoſe of 1789, there was ſuch a loſs as to withdraw thirty-three veſſels, of the town of Marblehead alone, from the further purſuit of this buſineſs: And the apprehenſion is, that, without ſome public aid, thoſe ſtill remaining will continue to withdraw, and this whole commerce be engroſſed by a ſingle nation.

This rapid view of the cod-fiſhery, enables us to diſcern under what policy it has flouriſhed or declined in the hands of other nations, and to mark the fact, that it is too poor a buſineſs to be left to itſelf, even with the nation the moſt advantageouſly ſituated.

It will now be proper to count the advantages which aid, and the diſadvantages which oppoſe us in this conteſt.

Our advantages are---

1. The neighbourhood of the great fiſheries, which permits our fiſhermen to bring home their fiſh to be ſalted by their wives and children.

2. The ſhore fiſheries, ſo near at hand as to enable the veſſels to run into port in a ſtorm, and ſo leſſen the riſk, for which diſtant nations muſt pay inſurance.

3. The winter fiſheries, which, like houſhold manufactures, employ portions of time which would otherwiſe be uſeleſs.

4. The ſmallneſs of the veſſels, which the ſhortneſs of the voyage enables us to employ, and which, conſequently, require but a ſmall capital.

5. The cheapneſs of our veſſels, which do not coſt above the half of the Baltic fir veſſels, computing price and duration.

6. Their excellence as ſea-boats, which decreaſes the riſk, and quickens the return.

7. The ſuperiority of our mariners in ſkill, activity, enterprize, ſobriety and order.

8. The cheapneſs of proviſions.

9. The cheapneſs of caſks, which, of itſelf, is ſaid to be equal to an extra profit of fifteen per cent.

Theſe advantages are of ſuch force, that, while experience has proved that no other nation can make a mercantile profit on the Newfoundland fiſhery, nor can ſupport it without national aid, we can make a living profit, if vent for our fiſh can be procured.

Of the *diſadvantages* oppoſed to us, thoſe which depend on ourſelves are---

Tonnage and naval duties on the veſſels employed in the fiſhery.

Impoſt duties on ſalt, on tea, rum, ſugar, melaſſes, hooks, lines and leads, duck, cordage and cables, iron, hemp, and twine, uſed in the fiſhery.

Coarſe woollens worn by the fiſhermen; and the poll-tax levied by the ſtate on their perſons. The ſtatement, No. 6. ſhews the amount of theſe, excluſive of the ſtate tax, and drawback on the fiſh exported, to be 5. 25 dollars per man, or 57. 75 dollars per veſſel of ſixty-five tons. When a buſineſs is ſo nearly in equilibrio, that one can hardly diſcern whether the profit be ſufficient to continue it, or not, ſmaller ſums than theſe ſuffice to turn the ſcale againſt it. To theſe diſadvantages, add ineffectual duties on the importation of foreign fiſh. In juſtification of theſe laſt, it is urged that the foreign fiſh received, is in exchange for the produce of agriculture. To which it may be anſwered, that the thing given is more merchantable than that received in exchange, and that agriculture has too many markets to be allowed to take away thoſe of the fiſheries. It will reſt, therefore, with the wiſdom of the legiſlature, to decide, whether prohibition ſhould not be oppoſed to prohibition, and high duty to high duty, on the fiſh of other nations: whether any, and which, of the naval and other duties, may be remitted, or an equivalent given to the fiſhermen in the form of a drawback or bounty; and whether the loſs of markets abroad may not, in ſome degree, be compenſated by creating markets at home; to which might contribute the conſtituting fiſh a part of the military ration, in ſtations not too diſtant from navigation, a part of the neceſſary ſea-ſtores of veſſels, and the encouraging private individuals to let the fiſhermen ſhare with the cultivator, in furniſhing the ſupplies of the table. A habit introduced from motives of patriotiſm, would ſoon be followed from motives of taſte: and who will undertake to fix limits to this demand, if it can be once excited, with a nation which doubles, and will long continue to double, at very ſhort periods?

Of the diſadvantages which depend on others, are—

1. The loſs of the Mediterranean markets.
2. Excluſions from the markets of ſome of our neighbours.
3. High duties in thoſe of others, and—
4. Bounties to the individuals in competition with us.

The conſideration of theſe will find its place more aptly, after a review of the condition of our whale fiſhery ſhall have led us to the ſame point. To this branch of the ſubject, therefore, we will now proceed.

The whale fiſhery was firſt brought into notice of the ſouthern nations of Europe, in the fifteenth century, by the ſame Biſcayans and Baſques, who led the way to the fiſhery of Newfoundland. They began it on their own coaſts, but ſoon found that the principal reſidence of the whale was in the northern ſeas, into which, therefore, they purſued him. In 1578, they employed twenty-five ſhips in that buſineſs; the Dutch and Hamburghers took it up after this, and about the middle of the ſeventeenth century, the former employed about two hundred ſhips, and the latter three hundred and fifty.

The Engliſh endeavoured alſo to participate of it. In 1672*, they offered to their own fiſhermen, a bounty of ſix ſhillings a ton, on the oil they ſhould bring home; and inſtituted at different times, different excluſive companies, all of which failed of ſucceſs. They raiſed their bounty in 1733†, to twenty ſhillings a ton on the admeaſurement of the veſſel. In 1740, to thirty ſhillings, with a privilege to the fiſhermen againſt being impreſſed. The Baſque-fiſhery, ſupported by poverty alone, had maintained but a feeble exiſtence, before competitors, aided by the bounties of their nation, and was, in fine, annihilated by the war of 1745, at the cloſe of which, the Engliſh bounty was raiſed to forty ſhillings. From this epoch, their whale fiſhery went on between the limits of twenty-eight and ſixty ſeven veſſels, till the commencement of the laſt war.

The Dutch, in the mean time, had declined gradually to about one hundred and thirty ſhips, and have, ſince that, fallen down to leſs than half that number: ſo that their fiſhery, notwithſtanding a bounty of thirty florins a man, as well as that of Hamburgh, is now nearly out of competition.

In 1715, the Americans began their whale fiſhery. They were led to it at firſt by the whales which preſented themſelves on their coaſts. They attacked them there in ſmall veſſels of forty tons. As the whale, being infeſted, retired from the coaſt, they followed him farther and farther into the ocean, ſtill enlarging their veſſels, with their adventures, to ſixty, one hundred, and two hundred tons. Having extended their purſuit to the weſtern iſlands, they fell in accidentally with the ſpermacæti whale, of a different ſpecies from that of Greenland, which alone, had been hitherto known in commerce; more fierce and active, and whoſe oil and head matter was found to be more valuable, as it might be uſed in the interior of houſes, without offending the ſmell. The diſtinction now firſt aroſe between the northern and ſouthern fiſheries; the object of the former, being the Greenland whale, which frequents the northern coaſts and ſeas of Europe and America, that of the latter being the ſpermacæti whale, which was found in the ſouthern ſeas, from the weſtern iſlands, and coaſt of Africa to that of Brazil, and ſtill on to the Faulkland iſlands. Here again, within ſoundings, on the coaſt of Brazil, they found a third ſpecies of whale, which they called the black or Brazil whale, ſmaller than the Greenland: yielding a ſtill leſs valuable oil, fit only for ſummer uſe, as it becomes opaque at fifty degrees of Farenheit's thermometer, while that of the ſpermacæti whale is limpid to forty-one, and of the Greenland whale to thirty-ſix, of the ſame thermometer. It is only worth taking therefore, when it falls in the way of the fiſhermen, but not worth ſeeking, except when they have failed of ſucceſs againſt the ſpermacæti whale, in which caſe, this kind, eaſily found and taken, ſerves to moderate their loſs.

In 1771, the Americans had one hundred and eighty-three veſſels, of thirteen thouſand eight hundred and twenty tons, in the northern fiſhery, and one hundred and twenty-one veſſels, of fourteen thouſand and twenty tons, in the ſouthern; navigated by four thouſand and fifty-nine men. At the beginning of the late war, they had one hundred and ſeventy-ſeven veſſels in the northern, and one hundred and thirty-two in the ſouthern fiſhery.

* 25 Car. II. c. 7. † 6 G. II. c. 33.

At that period, our fiſhery being ſuſpended, the Engliſh ſeized the opportunity of puſhing theirs. They gave additional bounties of five hundred, four hundred, three hundred, two hundred, and one hundred pounds ſterling, annually, to the five ſhips which ſhould take the greateſt quantities of oil. The effect of which was ſuch, as, by the year 1786, to double the quantity of common oil, neceſſary for their own conſumption. Finding, on a review of the ſubject, at that time, that their bounties had coſt the government thirteen pounds ten ſhillings ſterling a man, annually, or ſixty per cent. on the cargoes, a part of which went conſequently to eaſe the purchaſes of this article made by foreign nations, they reduced the northern bounty from forty to thirty ſhillings the ton, of admeaſurement.

They had ſome little time before turned their attention to the ſouthern fiſhery, had given very great bounties in it*, and had invited the fiſhermen of the united ſtates to conduct their enterpriſes. Under their guidance, and with ſuch encouragement, this fiſhery, which had only begun with them in 1784 or 1785, was riſing into value. In 1788, they increaſed† their bounties, and the temptations to our fiſhermen, under the general deſcription of foreigners who had been employed in the whale fiſhery, to paſs over with their families and veſſels to the Britiſh dominions, either in America or Europe, but preferably to the latter. The effect of theſe meaſures had been prepared by our whale oil's becoming ſubject, in their market, to the foreign duty of eighteen pounds five ſhillings ſterling the ton, which, being more than equal to the price of the common oil, operated as a prohibition on that, and gave to their own ſpermaceti oil, a preference over ours to that amount. The particulars of this hiſtory are preſented to the eye, more in detail, in the table No. 7.

The fiſhermen of the united ſtates, left without reſource by the loſs of their market, began to think of accepting the Britiſh invitation, and of removing—ſome to Nova-Scotia, preferring ſmaller advantages in the neighbourhood of their ancient country and friends, others to Great Britain, poſtponing country and friends to high premiums.

The government of France could not be inattentive to theſe proceedings. They ſaw the danger of letting four or five thouſand ſeamen, of the beſt in the world, be transferred to the marine ſtrength of another nation, and carry over with them an art, which they poſſeſſed almoſt excluſively. To give time for a counter-plan, the marquis de la Fayette, the valuable friend and citizen of this, as well as that country, wrote to a gentleman in Boſton to diſſuade the fiſhermen from accepting the Britiſh propoſals, and to aſſure them that their friends in France would endeavour to do ſomething for them. A veſſel was then arrived from Halifax, at Nantucket, to take off thoſe who had propoſed to remove. Two families had gone aboard, and others were going. In this moment, the letter arriving ſuſpended their deſigns. Not another went aboard, and the veſſel returned to Halifax, with only the two families.

The plan adopted by the French miniſtry, very different from that of the firſt mover, was to give a counter-invitation to the Nantucket men to remove and ſettle in Dunkirk, offering a bounty of fifty livres (between nine and ten dollars) a ton on the admeaſurement of the veſſels they ſhould equip for the whale-fiſhery, with ſome other advantages. Nine families only, of thirty-three perſons, accepted this invitation. This was in 1785. In 1786, the miniſtry were led to ſee, that their invitation would produce but little effect, and that the true means of preventing the emigration of our fiſhermen to the Britiſh dominions, would be to enable them ſtill to follow their calling from their native country, by giving them a new market for their oils, inſtead of the old one they had loſt. The duties were, therefore, abated on American whale oil immediately, and a further abatement promiſed by the letter No. 8; and in December, 1787, the arret No. 9. was paſſed.

The rival fiſhermen immediately endeavoured to turn this meaſure to their own advantage, by pouring their whale oils into the markets of France, where they were enabled, by the great premiums received from their government, perhaps too by extraordinary indemnifications, to underſell both the French and American fiſhermen. To repel this meaſure, France ſhut her ports to all foreign fiſh oils whatever, by the arret No. 10. The Britiſh whale fiſhery fell, in conſequence, the enſuing year, from two hundred and twenty-two, to one hundred and ſeventy-eight ſhips. But this ge-

* 26 G. III. c. 50. † 28 G. III. c. 20.

neral excluſion had paſſed our fiſhery alſo. On the 7th of December, 1788, therefore, by the arret No. 11. the ports of France, ſtill remaining ſhut to all other nations, were again opened to the produce of the whale fiſheries of the united ſtates; continuing, however, their endeavours to recover a ſhare in this fiſhery themſelves, by the aid of our fiſhermen. In 1784,—5,—6, they had four ſhips; in 1787, three; in 1788, ſeventeen in the two fiſheries, of four thouſand five hundred tons. Theſe coſt them in bounty two hundred and twenty-five thouſand livres, which divided on one thouſand five hundred and fifty tons of oil, the quantity they took, amounted to one hundred and forty-five livres (near twenty-ſeven dollars) the ton; and on about one hundred natives on board the ſeventeen ſhips, (for there were one hundred and fifty Americans engaged by the voyage) came to two thouſand two hundred and fifty livres, or about four hundred and ſixteen dollars and two-thirds a man.

We have had, during the years 1787, 1788, 1789, on an average, ninety-one veſſels, of five thouſand eight hundred and twenty tons, in the northern, and thirty-one, of four thouſand three hundred and ninety tons, in the ſouthern fiſhery. See. No. 12.

Theſe details will enable congreſs to ſee with what a competition we have to ſtruggle for the continuance of this fiſhery, not to ſay its increaſe. Againſt prohibitory duties in one country, and bounties to the adventurers in both of thoſe which are contending with each other for the ſame object, ours have no auxiliaries but poverty and rigorous economy. The buſineſs, unaided, is a wretched one. The Dutch have peculiar advantages for the northern fiſhery, as being within ſix or eight days ſail of the grounds, as navigating with more economy than any other nation in Europe, their ſeamen content with lower wages, and their merchants with lower profits. Yet the memorial (No. 13,) from a committee of the whale merchants to the ſtates general of Holland, in the year 1775, ſtates, that 14 millions of guilders, equal to five millions ſix hundred thouſand dollars, had been loſt in that fiſhery in forty-ſeven years, being about one hundred and twenty thouſand dollars a year. The ſtates general thereupon gave a bounty of thirty guilders a man to the fiſhermen. A perſon intimately acquainted with the Britiſh whale fiſhery, and whoſe information merits confidence, has given aſſurance that the ſhips employed in their northern fiſhery in 1788, ſunk eight hundred pounds each, on an average, more than the amount of the produce and bounties. An Engliſh ſhip of three hundred tons, and forty-two ſeamen, in this fiſhery, generally brings home, after a four months voyage, twenty-five tons of oil, worth four hundred and thirty ſeven pounds ten ſhillings, ſterling; but the wages of the officers and ſeamen will be four hundred pounds, there remain but thirty-ſeven pounds ten ſhillings, not worth taking into account towards the outfit and merchants' profit. Theſe then muſt be paid by the government; and it is on this idea that the Britiſh bounty is calculated.

Our veſſels for the northern fiſhery average ſixty-four tons, and coſt, when built, fitted out, and victualled for their firſt voyage, about three thouſand dollars. They have taken on an average the three laſt years, according to the ſtatement No. 12, eighteen ton of oil, worth, at our market, nine hundred dollars, which are to pay all expences, and ſubſiſt the fiſhermen and merchant. Our veſſels for the ſouthern fiſhery average one hundred and forty tons, and coſt, when built, fitted out, and victualled for their firſt voyage, about ſix thouſand five hundred dollars. They have taken on an average, the three laſt years, according to the ſame ſtatement, thirty-two tons of oil, each worth at our market, three thouſand two hundred dollars, which are in like manner, to pay all expenſes, and ſubſiſt the owners and navigators. Theſe expenſes are great, as the voyages are generally of twelve months duration. No hope can ariſe of their condition being bettered by an augmentation of the price of oil. This is kept down by the competition of the vegetable oils, which anſwer the ſame purpoſes, not quite ſo well, but well enough to become preferable, were the price to be raiſed, and ſo well indeed as to be more generally uſed than the fiſh oils for lightning houſes and cities.

The American whale fiſhery is principally followed by the inhabitants of the iſland of Nantucket, a ſand bar of about fifteen miles long and three broad, capable of maintaining by its agriculture about twenty families: but it employed in theſe fiſheries before the war, between five and ſix thouſand men and boys; and in the only harbour it poſſeſſes, it had one hundred and forty veſſels, one hundred and thirty-two of which were of the larger kind, as being employed in the ſouthern fiſhery. In agriculture then, they have no reſource, and, if that of their fiſhery cannot be purſued from their

own habitations, it is natural that they ſhould ſeek others, from which it can be followed, and preferably thoſe where they will find a ſameneſs of language, religion, laws, habits, and kindred. A foreign emiſſary has lately been among them, for the purpoſe of renewing the invitations to a change of ſituation. But attached to their native country, they prefer continuing in it, if their continuance there can be made ſupportable.

This brings us to the queſtion, what relief does the condition of this fiſhery require ?

1ſt. A remiſſion of duties on the articles uſed for their calling.

2d. A retaliating duty on foreign oils, coming to ſeek a competition with them in or from our ports.

3d. Free markets abroad.

1ſt. The remiſſion of duties will ſtand on nearly the ſame ground with that to the cod fiſhermen.

2d. The only nation whoſe oil is brought hither for competition with our own, makes ours pay a duty of about eighty-two dollars the ton, in their ports. Theirs is brought here too, to be re-ſhipped, fraudulently, under our flag, into ports where it could not be received under theirs, and ought not to be covered by ours, if we mean to preſerve our own admiſſion into them. The

3d. And principal object, is to find markets for the vent of oil.

Portugal, England, Holland, Sweden, Denmark, Pruſſia, Ruſſia, the Hanſe towns, ſupply themſelves and ſomething more. Spain and Italy receive ſupplies from England, and need the leſs as their ſkies are clearer. France is the only country which can take our ſurplus, and they take principally of the common oil; as the habit is but commencing with them of aſcribing a juſt value to that of the ſpermacæti whale. Some of this, however, finds its vent there. There was, indeed, a particular intereſt perpetually ſoliciting the excluſion of our oils from their markets. The late government there ſaw well, that what we ſhould loſe thereby, would be gained by others, not by themſelves. And we are to hope that the preſent government, as wiſely and friendly, will alſo view us, not as rivals, but as co-operators againſt a common rival. Friendly arrangements with them, and accommodation to mutual intereſt, rendered eaſier by friendly diſpoſitions exiſting on both ſides, may long ſecure to us this important reſource for our ſeamen. Nor is it the intereſt of the fiſhermen alone, which calls for the cultivation of friendly arrangements with that nation. Beſides five-eighths of our whale oil, and two-thirds of our ſalted fiſh, they take from us one-fourth of our tobacco, three-fourths of our live-ſtock, (No. 14,) a conſiderable and growing portion of our rice, great ſupplies occaſionally of other grain; in 1789, which, indeed, was extraordinary, four millions of buſhels of wheat, and upwards of a million of buſhels of rye and barley (No. 15,) and nearly the whole carried in our own veſſels, (No. 16.) They are a free market now; and will in time be a valuable one for our ſhips and ſhip-timber, potaſh and peltry.

England is the market for the greater part of our ſpermacæti oil. They impoſe on all our oils, a duty of eighteen pounds five ſhillings ſterling the ton, which, as to the common kind, is a prohibition, as has been before obſerved, and as to that of the ſpermacæti, gives a preference of theirs over ours to that amount, ſo as to leave, in the end, but a ſcanty benefit to the fiſhermen: and not long ſince, by a change of conſtruction, without any change of the law, it was made to exclude our oils from their ports, when carried in our own veſſels. On ſome change of circumſtance, it was conſtrued back again to the reception of our oils; on paying always, however, the ſame duty of eighteen pounds five ſhillings. This ſerves to ſhew, that the tenure, by which we hold the admiſſion of this commodity in their markets, is as precarious as it is hard. Nor can it be announced, that there is any diſpoſition on their part to arrange this or any other commercial matter, to mutual convenience. The exparte regulations, which they have begun, for mounting their navigation on the ruins of ours, can only be oppoſed by counter-regulations on our part. And the loſs of ſeamen, the natural conſequence of loſt and obſtructed markets for our fiſh and oil, calls, in the firſt place, for ſerious and timely attention. It will be too late, when the ſeaman ſhall have changed his vocation, or gone over to another intereſt. If we cannot recover and ſecure for him thoſe important branches of employment, it behooves us to replace them by others equivalent. We have three nurſeries for forming ſeamen:—

1. Our coaſting trade, already on a ſafe footing.

2. Our fiſheries, which, in ſpite of natural advantages, give juſt cauſe of anxiety.

3. Our carrying trade, the only reſource of indemnification for what we loſe in the other. The produce of the united ſtates, which is carried to foreign markets, is extremely bulky. That part of it, now in the hands of foreigners, and which we may reſume into our own, without touching the rights of thoſe nations who have met us in fair arrangements by treaty, or the intereſts of thoſe, who, by their voluntary regulations, have paid ſo juſt and liberal a reſpect to our intereſts, as, being meaſured back to them again, places both parties on as good ground, perhaps, as treaties could place them—the proportion, I ſay, of our carrying trade, which may be reſumed without affecting either of theſe deſcriptions of nations, will find conſtant employment for ten thouſand ſeamen—be worth two millions of dollars annually—will go on augmenting with the population of the united ſtates—ſecure to us a full indemnification for the ſeamen we loſe, and be taken wholly from thoſe who force us to this act of ſelf-protection, in navigation.

[*To be continued.*]

SPEECH OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES TO BOTH HOUSES OF CONGRESS.

Fellow-Citizens of the Senate, and of the Houſe of Repreſentatives,

I MEET you, upon the preſent occaſion, with the feelings which are naturally inſpired by a ſtrong impreſſion of the proſperous ſituation of our common country, and by a perſuaſion equally ſtrong that the labours of the ſeſſion, which has juſt commenced, will, under the guidance of a ſpirit no leſs prudent than patriotic, iſſue in meaſures, conducive to the ſtability and increaſe of national proſperity.

Numerous as are the providential bleſſings which demand our grateful acknowledgements—the abundance with which another year has again rewarded the induſtry of the huſbandman is too important to eſcape recollection.

Your own obſervations, in your reſpective ſituations, will have ſatisfied you of the progreſſive ſtate of agriculture, manufactures, commerce and navigation: In tracing their cauſes, you will have remarked, with particular pleaſure, the happy effects of that revival of confidence, public as well as private, to which the conſtitution and laws of the united ſtates have ſo eminently contributed: And you will have obſerved, with no leſs intereſt, new and deciſive proofs of the encreaſing reputation and credit of the nation. But you nevertheleſs cannot fail to derive ſatisfaction from the confirmation of theſe circumſtances, which will be diſcloſed in the ſeveral official communications that will be made to you, in the courſe of your deliberations.

The rapid ſubſcriptions to the Bank of the united ſtates, which completed the ſum allowed to be ſubſcribed in a ſingle day, is among the ſtriking and pleaſing evidences which preſent themſelves, not only of confidence in the government, but of reſource in the community.

In the interval of your receſs, due attention has been paid to the execution of the different objects which were ſpecially provided for by the laws and reſolutions of the laſt ſeſſion.

Among the moſt important of theſe, is the defence and ſecurity of the weſtern frontiers. To accompliſh it on the moſt humane principles, was a primary wiſh.

Accordingly, at the ſame time that treaties have been proviſionally concluded, and other proper means uſed to attach the wavering, and to confirm in their friendſhip the well-diſpoſed tribes of Indians—effectual meaſures have been adopted to make thoſe of a hoſtile deſcription ſenſible, that a pacification was deſired upon terms of moderation and juſtice.

Theſe meaſures having proved unſucceſsful, it became neceſſary to convince the refractory of the power of the united ſtates to puniſh their depredations. Offenſive operations have therefore been directed; to be conducted, however, as conſiſtently as poſſible with the dictates of humanity. Some of theſe have been crowned with full

ſucceſs, and others are yet depending. The expeditions which have been completed, were carried on under the authority, and at the expence of the united ſtates, by the militia of Kentucky; whoſe enterpriſe, intrepidity, and good conduct, are entitled to peculiar commendation.

Overtures of peace are ſtill continued to the deluded tribes, and conſiderable numbers of individuals belonging to them have lately renounced all further oppoſition, removed from their former ſituations, and placed themſelves under the immediate protection of the united ſtates.

It is ſincerely to be deſired, that all need of coercion, in future, may ceaſe; and that an intimate intercourſe may ſucceed; calculated to advance the happineſs of the Indians, and to attach them firmly to the united ſtates.

In order to this, it ſeems neceſſary,

That they ſhould experience the benefits of an impartial diſpenſation of juſtice.

That the mode of alienating their lands, the main ſource of diſcontent and war, ſhould be ſo defined and regulated, as to obviate impoſition, and, as far as may be practicable, controverſy, concerning the reality and extent of the alienations which are made.

That commerce with them ſhould be promoted under regulations tending to ſecure an equitable deportment towards them, and that ſuch rational experiments ſhould be made, for imparting to them the bleſſings of civilization, as may, from time to time, ſuit their condition.

That the executive of the united ſtates ſhould be enabled to employ the means to which the Indians have been long accuſtomed for uniting their immediate intereſts with the preſervation of peace.

And, that efficacious proviſion ſhould be made for inflicting adequate penalties upon all thoſe, who, by violating their rights, ſhall infringe the treaties, and endanger the peace of the union.

A ſyſtem correſponding with the mild principles of religion and philanthropy towards an unenlightened race of men, whoſe happineſs materially depends on the conduct of the united ſtates, would be as honourable to the national character as conformable to the dictates of ſound policy.

The powers ſpecially veſted in me by the act laying certain duties on diſtilled ſpirits, which reſpect the ſubdiviſions of the diſtricts into ſurveys, the appointment of officers, and the aſſignment of compenſations, have likewiſe been carried into effect. In a matter in which both materials and experience were wanting to guide the calculation, it will be readily conceived that there muſt have been difficulty in ſuch an adjuſtment of the rates of compenſation as would conciliate a reaſonable competency with a proper regard to the limits preſcribed by the law. It is hoped that the circumſpection which has been uſed will be found in the reſult to have ſecured the laſt of the two objects; but it is probable, that with a view to the firſt, in ſome inſtances, a reviſion of the proviſion will be found adviſeable.

The impreſſions with which this law has been received by the community have been, upon the whole, ſuch as were to be expected among enlightened and well diſpoſed citizens, from the propriety and neceſſity of the meaſure. The novelty however of the tax, in a conſiderable part of the united ſtates, and a miſconception of ſome of its proviſions, have given occaſion, in particular places, to ſome degree of diſcontent. But it is ſatisfactory to know, that this diſpoſition yields to proper explanations, and more juſt apprehenſions of the true nature of the law. And I entertain a full confidence, that it will, in all, give way to motives which ariſe out of a juſt ſenſe of duty, and a virtuous regard to the public welfare.

If there are any circumſtances in the law, which, conſiſtently with its main deſign, may be ſo varied as to remove any well-intentioned objections that may happen to exiſt, it will conſiſt with a wiſe moderation to make the proper variations. It is deſirable, on all occaſions, to unite with a ſteady and firm adherence to conſtitutional and neceſſary acts of government, the fulleſt evidence of a diſpoſition, as far as may be practicable, to conſult the wiſhes of every part of the community, and to lay the foundations of the public adminiſtration in the affections of the people.

Purſuant to the authority contained in the ſeveral acts on that ſubject—a diſtrict of ten miles ſquare, for the permanent ſeat of the government of the united ſtates, has been fixed, and announced by proclamation; which diſtrict will comprehend lands on both ſides of the river Potowmac, and the towns of Alexandria and George-Town.

A city has alſo been laid out, agreeably to a plan which will be placed before congreſs: And as there is a proſpect, favoured by the rate of ſales which have already taken place, of ample funds for carrying on the neceſſary public buildings, there is every expectation of their due progreſs.

The completion of the cenſus of the inhabitants, for which proviſion was made by law, has been duly notified (excepting one inſtance in which the return has been informal, and another in which it has been omitted, or miſcarried) and the returns of the officers who were charged with this duty, which will be laid before you, will give you the pleaſing aſſurance, that the preſent population of the united ſtates borders on four millions of perſons.

It is proper alſo to inform you, that a further loan of two millions and an half of florins has been completed in Holland; the terms of which are ſimilar to thoſe of the one laſt announced, except as to a ſmall reduction of charges. Another, on like terms, for ſix millions of florins, had been ſet on foot, under circumſtances that aſſured an immediate completion.

Gentlemen of the Senate,

Two treaties which have been proviſionally concluded with the Cherokees, and ſix nations of Indians, will be laid before you, for your conſideration and ratification.

Gentlemen of the Houſe of Repreſentatives,

In entering upon the diſcharge of your legiſlative truſt, you muſt anticipate with pleaſure, that many of the difficulties, neceſſarily incident to the firſt arrangements of a new goverment, for an extenſive country, have been happily ſurmounted by the zealous and judicious exertions of your predeceſſors, in co-operation with the other branch of the legiſlature. The important objects which remain to be accompliſhed, will, I am perſuaded, be conducted upon principles equally comprehenſive, and equally well calculated for the advancement of the general weal.

The time limited for receiving ſubſcriptions to the loans propoſed by the act making proviſion for the debt of the united ſtates having expired, ſtatements from the proper department will, as ſoon as poſſible, appriſe you of the exact reſult. Enough, however, is already known, to afford an aſſurance that the views of that act have been ſubſtantially fulfilled. The ſubſcription in the domeſtic debt of the united ſtates has embraced by far the greateſt proportion of that debt; affording, at the ſame time, proof of the general ſatisfaction of the public creditors with the ſyſtem which has been propoſed to their acceptance, and of the ſpirit of accommodation to the convenience of the government with which they are actuated. The ſubſcriptions in the debts of the reſpective ſtates, as far as the proviſions of the law have permitted, may be ſaid to be yet more general. The part of the debt of the united ſtates which remains unſubſcribed, will naturally engage your further deliberations.

It is particularly pleaſing to me to be able to announce to you, that the revenues which have been eſtabliſhed promiſe to be adequate to their objects; and may be permitted, if no unforeſeen exigency occurs, to ſuperſede, for the preſent, the neceſſity of any new burthens upon our conſtituents.

An object which will claim your early attention is, a proviſion for the current ſervice of the enſuing year, together with ſuch aſcertained demands upon the treaſury as require to be immediately diſcharged, and ſuch caſualties as may have ariſen in the execution of the public buſineſs, for which no ſpecific appropriation may have yet been made; of all which a proper eſtimate will be laid before you.

Gentlemen of the Senate and Houſe of Repreſentatives,

I ſhall content myſelf with a general reference to former communications for ſeveral objects, upon which the urgency of other affairs has hitherto poſtponed any definitive reſolution. Their importance will recall them to your attention; and I truſt that the progreſs already made in the moſt arduous arrangements of the government, will afford you leiſure to reſume them with advantage.

There are, however, ſome of them of which I cannot forbear a more particular mention.—Theſe are the militia, the poſt-office and poſt-roads—the mint, weights and meaſures, and a proviſion for the ſale of the vacant lands of the united ſtates.

The firſt is certainly an object of primary importance, whether viewed in reference to the national ſecurity, to the ſatisfaction of the community, or to the preſervation of order. In connection with this, the eſtabliſhment of competent magazines and arſenals, and the fortification of ſuch places as are peculiarly important and vulnerable, naturally preſent themſelves to conſideration. The ſafety of the united ſtates,

under divine protection, ought to reſt on the baſis of ſyſtematic and ſolid arrangements; expoſed as little as poſſible to the hazards of fortuitous circumſtances.

The importance of the poſt-office and poſt-roads, on a plan ſufficiently liberal and comprehenſive, as they reſpect the expedition, ſafety, and facility of communication, is increaſed by their inſtrumentality in diffuſing a knowledge of the laws and proceedings of the government; which, while it contributes to the ſecurity of the people, ſerves alſo to guard them againſt the effects of miſrepreſentation and miſconception. The eſtabliſhment of additional croſs-poſts, eſpecially to ſome of the important points in the weſtern and northern parts of the union, cannot fail to be of material utility.

The diſorders in the exiſting currency, and eſpecially the ſcarcity of ſmall change, a ſcarcity ſo peculiarly diſtreſſing to the poorer claſſes, ſtrongly recommend the carrying into immediate effect the reſolution already entered into concerning the eſtabliſhment of a mint. Meaſures have been taken, purſuant to that reſolution, for procuring ſome of the moſt neceſſary artiſts, together with the requiſite apparatus.

An uniformity in the weights and meaſures of the country is among the important objects ſubmitted to you by the conſtitution, and, if it can be derived from a ſtandard at once invariable and univerſal, muſt be no leſs honourable to the public councils, than conducive to the public convenience.

A proviſion for the ſale of the vacant lands of the united ſtates is particularly urged, among other reaſons, by the important conſiderations, that they are pledged as a fund for reducing the public debt; that, if timely and judiciouſly applied, they may ſave the neceſſity of burthening our citizens with new taxes for the extinguiſhment of the principal; and that being free to diſcharge the principal, but in a limited proportion, no opportunity ought to be loſt for availing the public of its rights.

G. WASHINGTON.

United States, Oct. 25, 1791.

ADDRESS *of the* HOUSE *of* REPRESENTATIVES, *in Anſwer to the foregoing* SPEECH.

To GEORGE WASHINGTON, PRESIDENT *of the* UNITED STATES.

SIR,

IN receiving your addreſs at the opening of the preſent ſeſſion, the houſe of repreſentatives have taken an ample ſhare in the feelings inſpired by the actual proſperity and flattering proſpects of our country: and whilſt, with becoming gratitude to heaven, we aſcribe this happineſs to the true ſource from which it flows, we behold, with an animating pleaſure, the degree in which the conſtitution and laws of the united ſtates have been inſtrumental in diſpenſing it.

It yields us particular ſatisfaction to learn the ſucceſs with which the different important meaſures of the government have proceeded; as well thoſe ſpecially provided for at the laſt ſeſſion, as thoſe of preceding date. The ſafety of our weſtern frontiers, in which the lives and repoſe of ſo many of our fellow citizens are involved, being peculiarly intereſting, your communications on that ſubject are proportionally grateful to us.

The gallantry and good conduct of the militia whoſe ſervices were called for, is an honourable confirmation of the efficacy of that precious reſource of a free ſtate. And we anxiouſly wiſh that the conſequences of their ſucceſsful enterprizes, and the other proceedings to which you have referred, may leave the united ſtates free to purſue the moſt benevolent policy towards the unhappy and deluded race of people in our neighbourhood.

The amount of the population of the united ſtates, determined by the returns of the cenſus, is a ſource of the moſt pleaſing reflections, whether it be viewed in relation to our national ſafety and reſpectability, or as a proof of the felicity in the ſituation of our country, which favours ſo unexampled a rapidity in its growth.

Nor ought any to be inſenſible to the additional motive ſuggeſted by this important fact, to perpetuate the free government eſtabliſhed, with a wiſe adminiſtration of

it, to a portion of the earth which promiſes ſuch an increaſe of the number which is to enjoy thoſe bleſſings within the limits of the united ſtates.

We ſhall proceed, with all the reſpect due to your patriotic recommendations, and with a deep ſenſe of the truſt committed to us by our fellow-citizens, to take into conſideration the various and important matters falling within the preſent ſeſſion. And in diſcuſſing and deciding each, we ſhall feel every diſpoſition, whilſt we are purſuing the public welfare, which muſt be the ſupreme object with all our conſtituents, to accommodate as far as poſſible the means of attaining it to the ſentiments and wiſhes of every part of them.

Signed by order, and in behalf of the Houſe of Repreſentatives,

JONATHAN TRUMBULL, *Speaker.*

Atteſt. JOHN BECKLEY, *Clerk.*

THE PRESIDENT'S REPLY.

GENTLEMEN,

THE pleaſure I derive from an aſſurance of your attention to the objects I have recommended to you, is doubled by your concurrence in the teſtimony I have borne to the proſperous condition of our public affairs.

Relying on the ſanctions of your enlightened judgment, and on your patriotic aid, I ſhall be the more encouraged in all my endeavours for the public weal; and particularly in thoſe which may be required on my part for executing the ſalutary meaſures I anticipated from your preſent deliberations.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

TERMS *and* CONDITIONS *declared by the* PRESIDENT *of the* UNITED STATES, *for Regulating the Materials and Manner of the Buildings and improvements on the* LOTS *in the City of* WASHINGTON.

1ſt. THAT the outer and party-walls of all houſes within the ſaid city ſhall be built of brick or ſtone.

2d. That all buildings on the ſtreets ſhall be parallel thereto, and may be advanced to the line of the ſtreet, or withdrawn therefrom, at the pleaſure of the improver: But where any ſuch building is about to be erected, neither the foundation nor party-wall ſhall be begun, without firſt applying to the perſon or perſons appointed by the commiſſioners to ſuperintend the buildings within the city, who will aſcertain the lines of the walls to correſpond with theſe regulations.

3d. The wall of no houſe to be higher than forty feet to the roof, in any part of the city; nor ſhall any be lower than thirty-five feet, on any of the avenues.

4th. That the perſon or perſons appointed by the commiſſioners to ſuperintend the buildings, may enter on the land of any perſon, to ſet out the foundation and regulate the walls to be built between party and party, as to the breadth and thickneſs thereof: Which foundation ſhall be laid equally upon the lands of the perſons between whom ſuch party-walls are to be built, and ſhall be of the breadth and thickneſs determined by ſuch perſon proper; and the firſt builder ſhall be reimburſed one moiety of the charge of ſuch party-wall, or ſo much thereof as the next builder ſhall have occaſion to make uſe of, before ſuch next builder ſhall any ways uſe or break into the wall—The charge or value thereof to be ſet by the perſon or perſons ſo appointed by the commiſſioners.

5th. As temporary conveniences will be proper for lodging workmen and ſecuring materials for building, it is to be underſtood that ſuch may be erected with the approbation of the commiſſioners: But they may be removed or diſcontinued, by the ſpecial order of the commiſſioners.

6th. The way into the ſquares being deſigned in a ſpecial manner for the common uſe and convenience of the occupiers of the reſpective ſquares—the property in the

ſame is reſerved to the public, ſo that there may be an immediate interference on any abuſe of the uſe thereof, by any individual, to the nuiſance or obſtruction of others. The proprietors of the lots adjoining the entrance into the ſquares, on arching over the entrance, and fixing gates in the manner the commiſſioners ſhall approve, ſhall be entitled to divide the ſpace over the arching, and build it up with the range of that line of the ſquare.

7th. No vaults ſhall be permitted under the ſtreets, nor any encroachments on the foot-way above, by ſteps, ſtoops, porches, cellar-doors, windows, ditches, or leaning walls; nor ſhall there be any projection over the ſtreets, other than the eves of the houſes, without the conſent of the commiſſioners.

8th. Theſe regulations are the terms and conditions upon which conveyances are to be made, according to the deeds in truſt of the lands within the city.

G. WASHINGTON.

October 17, 1791.

The CHRONICLE.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

GREAT-BRITAIN.

LONDON, *Sept.* 3.

THE party has, doubtleſs, great reaſon to boaſt of their wiſdom in paſſing ſentence of baniſhment upon Mr. Burke, from the black town of Sinope; they will now have the mortification to hear of that gentleman's thundering and convincing eloquence being diſplayed in the upper houſe; it being his majeſty's wiſh to diſtinguiſh and reward ſuch eminent abilities and integrity, with ſome ſpecial mark of his royal favour, and to retain Mr. Burke ſtill in the ſervice of his country; although he has more pretenſions than any man we know to enjoy the *otium cum dignitate*. He is to be Lord Beaconsfield.

WHITEHALL, *Auguſt* 30.

In conſequence of the late edict of the Spaniſh government reſpecting foreigners, the principal merchants and other Britiſh ſubjects reſiding in Alicant, were, on the 7th inſtant, required by the governor to declare whether they choſe to be conſidered and claſſed as foreigners *Tranſeuntes* or *Doniciliados*. On their preferring the latter claſs, they were ordered to leave Alicant within fifteen days, and were required to take an oath of implicit obedience to the laws of Spain during that period. Meſſrs. Keith and Macdonald having declined complying with this order, they were confined in the caſtle of Alicant.

On the receipt of this intelligence at Madrid, Count Florida Blanca immediately aſſured Lord St. Helen's that he entirely diſapproved of every part of the governor's conduct; that orders ſhould be immediately given for the releaſe of Meſſrs. Keith and Macdonald, without a moment's delay; and that the governor ſhould be called upon to prove any charge that he might have againſt them, and, on his failing to make it good, that thoſe gentlemen ſhould certainly receive due ſatisfaction. Count Florida Blanca added, that he had, the preceding evening, ſent orders on this ſubject, which would, he truſted, ſecure his Majeſty's ſubjects ſettled at Alicant from any further moleſtation.

Within a few hours after this converſation, Count Florida Blanca ſent Lord St. Helen's the abovementioned order for the releaſe of Meſſrs. Keith and Macdonald, which his excellency immediately forwarded to Alicant.

WARWICK, *Auguſt* 27.

Birmingham Rioters.

Four of the rioters lately tried have been capitally convicted, and Baron Perryn having left town, all the convicts muſt meet their fate, as his lordſhip left no room to expect a reprieve, nor gave any hopes of mercy.

MADRID, *Auguſt* 9.

The oath to be taken by ſtrangers has been ſo modified as to bind them only not to hold any communication with their own country on affairs of ſtate or matters of government.

VIENNA, *Auguſt* 24.

Laſt ſunday a courier arrived at the houſe of Prince Gallitzin, the Ruſſian ambaſſador, from prince Repnin, with news, that on 11th inſt. the preliminary articles of peace between Ruſſia and the Porte, were ſigned at Galatz by him and the Grand Vizier, and that in order to have time for adjuſting a definitive treaty, and appointing commiſſioners for that purpoſe, they had agreed upon an armiſtice for eight months.

Extract of a letter from the Hague, September, 2.

"An expreſs is arrived here with account that peace has been ſigned between Ruſſia and she Porte, at Maczin, in ſight of the two armies.

"There is not the leaſt doubt of the powers of Europe forming a league to ſettle the affairs of France; but it is ſaid, that the courts of England, Pruſſia and Holland, have not yet abſolutely come into the views of other powers in that important affair."

DOMESTIC INTELLIGENCE.

PORTSMOUTH, (N. H.) *September* 22.

Laſt Friday the convention, which met at Concord for the purpoſe of reviſing the conſtitution of this ſtate, adjourned to meet at the ſame place the ſecond Wedneſday of February next. The alterations agreed upon, are referred to a committee of ten, to report at the adjourned meeting.

NEW-YORK, *October* 26.

Laſt Monday night, about 11 o'clock, a building in Broad-ſtreet, occupied by Mr. Ritchie, manufacturer of ſtarch and hair-powder, took fire, and was very ſoon reduced to aſhes. Conſiderable damage was done to an adjoining houſe.

BALTIMORE, *October* 25.

Extract of a letter from a reſpectable gentleman in Baltimore county, to his friend in this town, dated the 19th inſtant.

I have a remarkable breed of ſheep, which hath been produced by adding to my flock a Perſian ram.

"The other day I ſeparated from the reſt twelve wethers; theſe I intend to kill this winter:—They appeared ſo uncommonly fat and large, that I was induced to weigh them alive; the particular weight of each ſheep was as follows:—154, 177, 181, 168, 157, 168, 188, 174, 155, 172, 152, 169—Total 2015lb."

DUMFRIES, *October* 20.

We, the Grand Jury for the diſtrict of Dumfries, do preſent as a grievance, the exiſting laws of this commonwealth; whereby landed property is protected from ſale by execution for payment of debts.

We ſee with regret, many inſtances of injuſtice, and we apprehend much immorality is thereby encouraged.

ALEXANDRIA, *October*, 31.

Account of the flour inſpected at this port, for the laſt two years, (taken from the inſpector's books) viz.

From the 1ſt of Auguſt 1789, to the firſt of Auguſt 1790—42,220 barrels. From the 1ſt of Auguſt 1790, to the 1ſt of Auguſt 1791—50,332 barrels.

PHILADELPHIA, *October* 8.

It is ſaid in a Richmond paper, that Mr. Robert Carter, of Nominy, Virginia, has emancipated 442 ſlaves—This, if true, is a ſacrifice on the altar of Humanity of perhaps an hundred thouſand dollars—and is the more extraordinary and praiſeworthy in an age when Mammon is the god that commands the moſt extenſive congregation of worſhippers.

Among a variety of accounts from Cape Francois, the following has been related: A widow, who owned a plantation on which there were about 500 negroes, having always treated them with humanity and kindneſs, on the alarm from the inſurgents, theſe ſlaves applied to their owner for arms to defend her property—and when the plantation was attacked, they repelled and beat off the aſſailants, by which means the eſtate was preſerved from deſtruction.—Humanity as well as honeſty will be found to be the beſt policy.

Oct. 9. Accounts have been received in town of a dreadful conflagration in Newbern, North-Carolina, on the 28th ult. A great part of that flouriſhing town fell a ſacrifice to the flames; ſixty-three houſes being conſumed. The ravages of the deſtructive element were checked by blowing up ſeveral houſes with gun-powder. A ſimilar expedient was adopted to ſtop the progreſs of the great fire in London, in the reign of Charles the ſecond.—The loſs is computed at *one hundred thouſand pounds*.

An office is opened in London for the ſale of Stocks in the American Funds.

Cambricks of a ſuperior fineneſs are now manufactured in Ireland.

Oct. 12. A plan for cutting a canal between Clubfoot's and Harlow's creeks, in North Carolina, lately appeared in the Edenton paper—the diſtance from creek to creek is about two miles—Thus the ſpirit of improvement is catching from ſtate to ſtate.

Oct. 20. By late accounts from Port-au-Prince, it apears that a coalition has been formed between the *whites* and the *free people of colour*—and by a written convention, the whites have recognized the rights and privileges granted to the people of colour by the National Aſſembly, as well as thoſe which they claim under certain ancient edicts of the French Monarchs.

Oct. 22. Yeſterday, purſuant to notification, the ſtockholders of the Bank of the united ſtates, aſſembled at the city-hall, of this city, for the purpoſe of chuſing 25 Directors according to law—when the following gentlemen were elected:

George Cabot	Fiſher Ames	Jonathan Maſon jun.
Joſeph Barrell	Jeremiah Wadſworth	Philip Livingſton
John Watts	John Lawrance	Rufus King
James Watſon	Nicholas Low	Joſeph Anthony
Joſeph Ball	William Bingham	James Cole Fiſher
Herman Le Roy	John M. Neſbitt	Robert Smith
Thomas Willing*	Archibald M'Call	Charles Petit
Charles Carroll, M.	Dr. James M'Clure, V.	Samuel Johnſton, N. C.
William Smith, S. C.		

Oct. 25. According to the new conſtitution of France, the number of Repreſentatives is to be 745; which, according to a calculation, is about one Repreſentative to thirty-five thouſand inhabitants. The Engliſh is one to 16,128, and the Iriſh, one to 13,339.

Oct. 31. Tueſday laſt, about one o'clock, the ſtable of Mr. Thomas Fiſher, near Spruce-ſtreet, caught fire, which conſumed the roof and upper floor, and a quantity of hay, &c. and communicated to a brick ſtable adjoining, belonging to Nicholas Waln, Eſq. the roof of which, and about 7 tons of hay were likewiſe conſumed.

Wedneſday afternoon, about 4 o'clock, the city was again alarmed by the cry of fire, which appeared in the neighbourhood of Dock-ſtreet, and deſtroyed a frame houſe belonging to Mr. John Waln, containing a quantity of hay.

* *Mr. Willing has ſince been choſen Preſident of the bank; and John Kean, Eſq. (S. C.) Caſhier.*

Thurſday afternoon, about 5 o'clock, a fire broke out in the hay-loft of a brick ſtable, belonging to Mr. John Morton, in Dock-ſtreet, near the drawbridge, which occaſioned conſiderable damage to the building, beſides deſtroying a quantity of hay, &c. before it could be extinguiſhed.

Circumſtances having created a ſuſpicion that theſe diſaſters were occaſioned by ſome evil-diſpoſed perſons; a proclamation has been iſſued by the governor, offering a reward of 500 dollars for the diſcovery of the perpetrator or perpetrators of this horrid villany. A like reward of 500 dollars is offered upon the ſame terms by a few public-ſpirited citizens.

Extract of a letter from Boſton.

Mr.——, who lately arrived from France, informed me that the impoſitions on our oil, &c. in that kingdom, are occaſioned merely on account of there being no diſcriminations made between our allies, and thoſe not in alliance with us. They ſay—why ſhould we admit your commodities free of duty, when you make us pay the ſame as the Engliſh do?

"If Congreſs was to put 10 per cent. on all foreigners not in alliance, and appropriate the proceeds of ſuch a duty as a bounty for the encouragement of the whale fiſhery, it might prevent our beſt whalers going to France and England, to carry on and learn them the buſineſs. Unleſs the general government does ſomething to encourage the buſineſs, you may depend that this great article of commerce will in a few years be loſt to the united ſtates.

"Mr. Jefferſon's report will, I hope, operate to produce ſomething that may anſwer to counteract France and England, ſo far as their duties embarraſs the fiſheries."

The following is copy of a return made by capt. O'Brien, at Algiers, to the Ruſſian conſul at Gibraltar:

AMERICANS AT ALGIERS, THE 15th OF MARCH, 1791.

Crew of the ſhip Dauphin, captured 30th of July, 1785.

		Zequins.
Capt. Richard O'Brien, ranſom demanded		2000
Mate Andrew Montgomery,		1500
Jacob Serſainer, French paſſenger		2000
William Patterſon	keeps tavern	1500
Philip Sloan	Seamen	725
Peleg Loring	Seamen	725
J. Robertſon	Seamen	725
James Hall	Seamen	725

Crew of the ſchooner Mary, taken the 25th of July, 1785.

Capt. Iſaac Stevens		2000
Mate, Alexander Forſyth		1500
James Cathcart, keeps tavern,		900
George Smith, in the Dey's houſe	Seamen	725
John Gregory	Seamen	725
James Harmet	Seamen	725
Algerine Zequins,		16475
Duty payable on the above ſum at 10 per cent.		1647½
Sundry gratifications to officers of the Dey's houſhold and regency, equal to 17 1-6 Zequins, each perſon		204½
34792 Mexican dollars are		Zeq. 18,362 5-6

Extract of a letter from Glaſgow, July 28.

"The united ſtates will never find ſuch a ſure and certain market for their grain as by encouraging manufactories. This will be a market attended with no riſks, and liable to the regulation of no foreign prince. In ſhort, if peace is reſtored in Europe, it is doubtful if there will be occaſion for a ſingle cargo of American wheat. By encouraging manufactories ſo much in Britain, all that the country grows is conſumed at home."

MARRIAGES.

MASSACHUSETTS. At *Boston*, the Rev. Jonathan Maxey, of Providence, to Miss Susannah Hopkins; Dr. Nathaniel Noyes to Miss Rebecca Hunt; Mr. Samuel S. Parker to Miss Ruth Adams; Mr. John Hitchborn to Miss Betsy Brown; Capt. Charles Porter to Miss Betsy Wilkinson; Mr. Joseph A. Kimble to Miss Patty Redman.

RHODE-ISLAND. At *Newport*, Mr. John Bowers, of Somerset, to Miss Mary Robinson.

NEW-YORK. *In the capital.* Francis Lynch, Esq. to Miss Maria Rose; James Anderson, Esq. of South-Carolina, to Miss Webb; Mr. John Mildenberger to Miss Polly Gassner; Mr Abraham Okie to Miss Mary Gibbons; Mr. Thomas Greenleaf to Miss Nancy Quackenbos. At *Schenectady*, Joseph C. Yates. Esq. to Mrs. Ellice. At *Fishkill*, Mr. Isaac Swartwout to Miss Betsy Lewis.

NEW-JERSEY At *Newark*, Mr Matthias B. Higgins to Miss Polly Andress; William Griffiths, Esq. of Burlington to Miss Abigail Hatfield. At *Orange*, Mr. Gersham Williams to Miss Phebe Squires. At *Burlington*, Mr. Nathaniel Coleman to Mrs. Lippencott.

PENNSYLVANIA. At *Philadelphia*, Mr. Joseph James to Miss Hopkins; Mr. Isaac Price to Miss Polly Fenthom; Capt. Richard Dale to Miss Crathorn; Mr. David C. Claypoole to Miss Peggy Britton; Nathaniel Blodget, Esq. to Mrs. Bland, relict of the late Hon. Thedorick Bland, of Virginia; Mr. John Pinkerton, jun. to Miss Jenny Thompson. At *Mount-Pleasant*, Alleghany county, Lieut Jeffers of the 1st U. S Reg. to Miss Sally Christy. Doctor George Benzell, of *Germantown*, to Miss Hannah Comb, of Chesnut-hill. At *Carlisle*, Mr. William Turnbull to Miss Maria Nisbet.

DELAWARE. At *Wilmington*, Mr. John Beaton to Mrs Hill.

MARYLAND. At *Baltimore*, Dr. William Hayes to Miss Polly Stoskit.

SOUTH-CAROLINA. At *Charleston*, Archibald Davison, Esq. of Black-River, to Miss Jane C. Sweetman; Dr. John P. Smith to Mrs Clifford. At *Georgetown*, Capt. Mitchell to Miss Chifley; Peter Casanave, Esq. to Miss Ann Young, of Notley-Hall. At *Santee*, Mr. William R. L. Stukes, of Charleston, to Miss Baxter, of Peedee.

DEATHS.

NEW-HAMPSHIRE. At *Portsmouth*, John Parker, Esq. Marshal for the district of New-Hampshire.

MASSACHUSETTS. At *Boston*, Mrs. Joanna Stanton; Master John Greaton; Mrs. Homans, consort of Mr. Benjamin Homans; Mr. John Osborne; Mrs. Coulter; Miss Elizabeth Farnham; Mr. Calvin White; Mr. William Leachmore; Mrs. Rogers, consort of Mr. Daniel D. Rogers.

CONNECTICUT. At *Hartford*, Mrs. Hopkins, consort of Dr. Asa Hopkins; Mr. David Bliss.

NEW-YORK. *In the capital*, Mr. Daniel le Roy; Mr. Richard Drake; Mr. Hunt; Mr. James Gray; Mrs. Harper, of the American company of comedians; Mr. Henry Bancker; Mr. Samuel Dunlap; Mr. Thomas Smith. At *Lansingburgh*, Mr. Hugh Boyle, of Philadelphia; Abraham J. Lansing, Esq. aged 72, and Catharine Lansing, his consort, aged 69. At *Pleasant-Valley*, the Rev. Wheeler Case. At *Albany*, Mr. Gerrit Rychman. At *Rye*, Miss Anne M. Jay, At *Montgomery*, Ulster county, Patrick Barber, Esq. At *Flatbush*, Long-Island, Peter Lefferts, Esq. At *Fishkill*, Mr. Montfort.

NEW-JERSEY. At *Allentown*, Miss Jane Covenhoven. At *Burlington*, John Hude, Esq; Mrs. Vantine. At *Newark*, Dr. William Burnet. At *Westfield*, col. John Scudder.

PENNSYLVANIA. In *Philadelphia*, Mr. John Helm; Mrs. Aston, consort of Mr. George Aston; Marcus C. Knox, son of general Knox; Mr. Alexander Nesbitt; Mr. John Wayne; Mrs. Catharine Cottringer, consort of Mr. John Cottringer; Mr. Samuel Howell; Mr. Philip Benezet; Mrs. Herr, consort of Mr. David Herr; Mrs Mary Stevenson. At *Wright's-Ferry*, Mrs. Jefferies, consort of Mr. Joseph Jefferies.

DELAWARE. At *Wilmington*, Mr. Hezekiah Niles, killed by the falling of a sign and sign-post.

VIRGINIA. At *Winchester*, suddenly, Mr. Thomas Ryan.

NORTH-CAROLINA. Col. George Mitchell, of *Onslow-county*, killed by Robert W. Snead, Esq. in a duel.

SOUTH-CAROLINA. In *Charleston*, Mrs. Wickham, consort of Dr. Wickham of Peedee; Mr. Simon Thayer.

Philadelphia Prices-Current,

OCTOBER, 31, 1791.

Ashes, pot, p. ton,		35l.
Beef. Iriſh, p. bbl.		60s.
Pen. and Jer. do.		45s.
Boſt. (wmſhips)		60-62s.
Brandy, French, p. gal.		11/3.
Bread, ſhip, per cwt.		14/6s.
Beer. American, in bottles, per dozen		8/4.
Ditto, per bbl.		30s.
Boards. Oak, p. m. feet,		67/6-85s
Merchant. pine		95s.
Sap,		60s.
Cedar,		55-65s.
Chocolate, per lb.		1s.
Coffee, per. lb.		13-14d.
Flour. Superfine, p. bl.		37s.
Common,		35s.
Bur. mid. beſt,		31s.
Middlings,		26-27s.
Ship ſtuff, p. cwt.		10s.
Flax, per lb.		7½-9d.
Flaxſeed, per buſh.		5-5/9.
Ginſeng, per lb.		1/6-2s.
Gin, Holland, per gal.		5/9-6s.
Grain. Wheat, p. buſh.		6/9-7s.
Rye,		4s-4/6.
Oats,		1/9-2.
Indian corn,		2/7.
Barley,		4/7.
beſt ſhelled,		20s.
Buckwheat,		2s.
Hams, per lb.		6½-7d.
Hogs-lard,		7½-8d.
Honey,		3½d4d
Hemp, per. ton,		50-52l 10s.
Hops, per lb.		2/3-2/6.
Hogſhead hoops, p. m.		5-6l.
Hides raw, per lb.		9½d-10d.
Indigo, Fr. per lb.		7/6-12s.
Carolina,		4-6/6.
Iron. Caſt, per cwt.		22/6-30s.
Bar, per ton,		29l-30l.
Pig,		9l-10l.
Sheet,		60l-65l.
Nail rods,		36l.
Meal, Indian, p. bbl		16/8-17s.
Molaſſes, per gal.		2/4-2/8.
Nails, 10, 12 & 20d.		8½d.
Oil. Sper. ſtrained, p. g.		3/7.
Whale com.		2s.
Do. Northern,		2/6.
Tanners p. bbl.		67/6.
Parchment, per doz.		30-37/6.
Porter, American,		10/6
Pork. Burlington,		105s.
Lower Co.		75/6-60.
Carolina,		65-70.
Peaſe,		6-7/6.
Rice, per cwt.		20-21s.
Rum. Jamaica per g.		7-7/6.
Windward,		6s.
Antigua,		6s-6/6.
Barbadoes,		4s.
Country,		4/3.
Taffia,		2/9.
Steel. German, p. cwt.		60-70s.
Engliſh, bliſtered,		80s.
Amer. p. ton,		45-60l.
Crowley's, p. fag.		85s.
Snake root, p. lb.		1/6-2/8
Soap, common,		5d.
Caſtile,		6d.
Starch,		4d-9d.
Sugar. Lump, per lb.		17d.
Loaf, ſing. refin.		18d.
Ditto, double ditto.		20d.
Havannah, white,		11-13d
Ditto, brown,		9d.
Muſco. p. cwt.		100s.
Salt. Allum, p. buſh.		2/4.
Liverpool,		2/1.
Cadiz,		1/1.
Liſbon,		2/2-2/4.
Tar. N. Jer. 24 g.		7/6.
Carolina, 32g.		8s-8/4.
Turpentine,		12/6.
Tobacco, 100lb. J.R. n tw. beſt,		27/6-28s.
Inferior,		20-22/6.
Old,		30-35.
Rappahan.		18/9-20.
Coloured Maryl.		30-60s.
Dark,		17/6-18/9.
Long leaf,		17/6-18-9.
Eaſtern Shore,		16-18s.
Carolina, new,		18/9-20s.
Old,		20s-25s.
Tea. Hyſon, p. lb.		7/6-8/6.
Souchong,		4/1-6/8.
Congo,		39/-5/7.
Bohea,		2/6-2/7.
Wine. Mad. p. p.		40l-75l.
Liſbon,		30l.
Teneriffe, p. g.		4/2.
Fayal, p. g.		3/4.
Port, per pipe,		40-42l 10s.
Ditto, per gal.		5/10s.
Dit. per doz. bot.		28-30s.
Claret,		30-60s.
Sherry, p. gal.		7/6.
Malaga,		5s.
Wax, bees, per lb.		1/10½-2s.

Current Prices of PUBLIC SECURITIES.

Funded debt.	6 per Cents	22s
	3 per Cents	12/6
	Defered 6 per Cents	13/4
Unfunded do.	Final Settl. and other Certificates	16/8—17s.
	Indents	10/6
	State debts	15/6
	Bank Subſcriptions,	150 Dollars.

COURSE of EXCHANGE.

Bills of Exchange,	London,	90 days,	70—71.	Amſterdam,	60 days, per guilder, 3s.
Ditto,		60 days,	72½.		30 days, 3/1
Ditto		30 days,	76.	France,	60 days, per 5 livres, 6s.
					30 days, 6/1

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS, made in PHILADELPHIA, in the MONTH of SEPTEMBER, 1791.

Days.	Barom. Eng. foot. In.	Thermometer of Farenh. Reaum. D.	D.	Anemometer Prevail Wind	rain	Thunder	Storm	WEATHER.
1	29 11 11	69 3	16 6	NE				Cloudy
	29 11 13	80 8	21 7	NE				Fair
2	30 2 0	63 0	13 8	N W				Fair
	30 2 3	78 1	20 5	WNW				Fair
3	30 4 4	61 2	13 0	NNE	1			Cloudy, rain
	30 3 15	61 2	13 0	NE	1			Rain
4	30 1 1	61 0	12 9	NE	1			Rain
	29 11 8	67 3	15 7	ENE	1			Rain
5	29 11 7	62 8	13 7	NE	1			Rain
	29 10 4	71 6	17 6	NE	1	1		Rain, thunder
6	29 11 7	62 4	13 5	WNW				Cloudy
	29 11 9	72 5	18 0	NW				Cloudy
7	30 1 14	66 0	15 1	WNW				Cloudy
	30 1 14	78 6	20 7	WNW				Cloudy
8	30 2 13	64 6	14 5	NNW				Cloudy
	30 2 11	82 4	22 4	ESE				Cloudy
9	30 2 12	65 1	14 7	ENE				Cloudy
	30 2 4	78 6	20 7	ENE				Cloudy
10	30 2 3	65 7	15 0	ENE				Cloudy
	30 0 4	77 0	20 0	ESE				Cloudy
11	29 11 8	71 4	17 5	SE	1			Rain
	29 11 0	73 8	18 6	SW	1			Heavy rain
12	29 10 14	64 6	14 5	WNW				Fair
	29 11 5	71 6	17 6	W				Fair
13	30 1 0	58 3	11 7	WNW				Fair
	29 11 13	74 1	18 7	SSW				Fair
14	29 11 8	63 5	14 0	WSW	1			Fair, rain
	29 11 9	69 6	16 7	WSW				Cloudy
15	29 11 0	57 0	11 1	NE	1			Rain
	29 11 4	57 4	11 3	NNW	1			Rain
16	30 3 5	52 2	9 0	NW				Fair
	30 3 8	66 4	15 3	WNW				Fair
17	30 4 3	53 1	9 4	W				Fair
	30 3 9	70 21	17 0	W	1			Fair
18	30 3 9	59 0	12 0	NNE				Fair
	30 2 8	75 6	19 4	WSW				Fair
19	30 1 3	59 4	12 2	WSW				Fair
	30 0 0	77 4	20 2	WSW				Fair
20	29 10 14	64 6	14 5	W				Cloudy
	29 10 10	81 0	21 8	WSW				Cloudy
21	30 3 15	60 6	12 7	NNE				Fair
	30 4 2	75 4	19 3	NE				Cloudy,
22	30 4 8	57 9	11 5	NNE				Cloudy
	30 2 5	74 7	19 0	ESE	1			Cloudy, rain
23	30 2 7	70 2	17 0	ESE				Cloudy
	30 1 9	80 4	21 5	WSW	1			Rain
24	30 1 10	71 8	17 7	W				Fog
	30 1 1	81 5	22 0	NNE	1			Cloudy, rain
25	30 0 11	66 2	15 2	NNE				Fog
	30 0 6	71 6	14 6	NNE	1			Cloudy rain
26	30 3 7	59 0	12 0	NE				Cloudy
	30 3 3	64 8	14 6	NE	1			Cloudy, rain
27	30 1 4	63 5	14 0	NE	1			Fog, rain
	30 0 3	75 2	19 2	WNW				Fair
28	30 0 9	59 0	12 0	WNW				Fair
	30 1 9	66 9	15 5	NW				Cloudy
29	30 3 13	52 2	9 0	NW				Fair
	30 3 3	70 9	17 3	WNW				Cloudy
30	30 3 0	59 0	12 0	SSW				Fair
	30 2 1	79 2	21 0	SSW				Fair

RESULT.								
	3rd. gr. ele.	3th gr. de. of heat		NE				
	30 4 4	82 4 22 4		NNE	17	1		Cloudy & Rainy.
	5th least el.	16th least de. of heat		&				
	29 10 3	52 2 9 0		WNW				
	Variation	Variation						
	0 6 1	31 2 13 4						
	Mean eleva.	Temperature						
	1 30 1 6	167 8 15 9		1		1	1	1

UNIVERSAL A

AND

Columbian Magazine,

FOR MAY, 1792.

BY A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

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TO WHICH IS ANNEXED AN APPENDIX, CONTAINING LAWS PASSED IN THE LATE SESSION OF CONGRESS.

PHILADELPHIA:

PRINTED FOR THE PROPRIETORS, BY *WILLIAM YOUNG*, BOOKSELLER, N°. 52, SECOND-STREET, THE CORNER OF CHESNUT-STREET.

READABLE to our propoſed extenſion of the plan of this work, intimated at the cloſe of the laſt year, we have this month publiſhed a part of the Laws paſſed in the late ſeſſion of congreſs. The remainder will be given in our next, and the whole will form an Appendix to our firſt volume for 1792. The ſecond volume will contain an Hiſtorical Sketch of the Proceedings of Congreſs, which will be commenced in the Aſylum for July. A reference, occaſionally, to the Reports and Laws contained in the Aſylum, by ſaving us the trouble of frequent repetitions, will enable us to compriſe our Congreſſional Hiſtory within narrower limits than we could otherwiſe do, and this without rendering it by any means leſs complete.

Alphonſo's "Tale" is *pathetic*; but to what uſeful purpoſe? It is, indeed, well calculated to excite *pity*, but we cannot perceive that it has any other object.

The Adventures of a Philoſopher might, with much more propriety, be entitled *The Progreſs of Folly*.

The eſſay ſigned N. N. is too *incorrect* for publication; yet, in other reſpects, it is too good to be loſt. Should the author think proper to call on the editor, the objectionable parts will be pointed out; or if he chooſe to leave it to our reviſion, it will probably appear next month.

The poetical favours of *Lyricus* and *Horatius*, will, if agreeable to the authors, be inſerted, after having undergone a few alterations.

As we are diſpoſed to cheriſh youthful genius, we are ſorry the merit of *The petition to Cheerfulneſs*, is not ſuch as to entitle it to a place in our *Parnaſſiad*.

ERRATA.

In the Aſylum for March, pa. 177, after line 30, add, "order to ſilence"——pa. 178, line 2, after the word *married*, add "a homely woman."

PHILADELPHIA, *May* 31, 1792.

Current Prices of PUBLIC SECURITIES.

Six per cents, per £. - -	22/6.	*Final Settlements,* - -	20s.
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THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR MAY, 1792.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

ACCOUNT *of the late* DR. STUBER.

DOCTOR Henry Stuber was born in this city, of German parents. He was ſent, at an early age, to the univerſity, where his genius, diligence, and amiable temper ſoon acquired him the particular notice and favour of thoſe, under whoſe immediate direction he was placed. After paſſing through the common courſe of ſtudy, in a much ſhorter time than uſual, he left the univerſity, at the age of ſixteen, with great reputation. Not long after, he entered on the ſtudy of phyſic; and the zeal with which he purſued it, and the advances he made, gave his friends reaſon to form the moſt flattering proſpects, of his future eminence and uſefulneſs in the profeſſion. Theſe well-founded expectations of his ſucceſs in this purſuit were diſappointed, by a reſolution which he formed to abandon it. He was led to this ſtep, from conſidering the difficulty and uncertainty which attend a young man's ſpeedily riſing, in this profeſſion, to any conſiderable degree of notice and regard, for which he muſt be indebted, more perhaps than in any other, to the influence of accident, or the number and intereſt of his connections. The buſineſs of this profeſſion being in a great degree domeſtic, and removed from public obſervation, a young man has no immediate opportunity of engaging general attention, and forcing his way in the opinion and eſteem of the world. He is condemned to paſs through a long ſtate of probation, and can only arrive at any conſiderable degree of eminence, as his reputation, by long experience, becomes confirmed, and as thoſe, who occupy the heights of the profeſſion, from which it is almoſt impoſſible to diſlodge them, gradually retire from their poſts.—

As Dr. Stuber's circumſtances were very moderate, he did not think this purſuit well calculated to anſwer them. He therefore relinquiſhed it, after he had obtained a degree in the profeſſion, and qualified himſelf to practiſe with credit and ſucceſs; and immediately entered on the ſtudy of the law.—This he cultivated, in the intervals of leiſure, from an attendance on one of the public offices of the united ſtates; a place which had been procured, in order to ſatiſ-

exigencies of his ſituation, by the recommendable characters, whoſe conſtant patronage and friendſhip were highly advantageous to him, at the ſame time that they afforded the ſtrongeſt evidence of his merit.—

In the purſuit of the laſt mentioned object, he was prematurely arreſted, before he had an opportunity of reaping the fruit, of thoſe talents with which nature had endowed him, and of a youth ſpent in the ardent and ſucceſsful purſuit of uſeful and elegant literature.

Few men, at ſo early an age, have acquired ſuch an extent and variety of learning, or diſplayed ſo much ſtrength and maturity of judgment.—He was acquainted with the outlines and leading principles of almoſt every ſcience.—

Medicine is, perhaps, the moſt general and univerſal of the whole circle of ſciences, and embraces, in all its different branches, the greateſt number of objects, and the moſt extenſive variety of learning. The cultivation of this ſcience had introduced him to an acquaintance with all thoſe, that border upon, or are connected with it. But beſides this, he had turned his attention to many branches of knowledge, which are not ſo immediately dependent on this profeſſion.

The moſt important and intereſting periods of hiſtory were familiar to him. The cultivation of the ſcience of politics and government, together with a natural freedom and elevation of mind, had impreſſed him with the warmeſt zeal for liberty and republicaniſm.

He had beſtowed more than common attention, on the conſideration of the properties of the mind, its powers and operations, and the nature and origin of our ideas.

Of the German language, which is ſo uſeful in many parts of our ſtate, he had obtained a correct and claſſical knowledge, and was well verſed in the polite literature of that country. He had an intimate acquaintance with the Latin and Greek tongues, which he acquired, under the direction of Dr. Kunzee, who was at that time a profeſſor in the univerſity, with great facility, and in a manner very different from that in which they are commonly taught. Inſtead of being long confined to the unprofitable taſk, of committing to memory all the rules of grammar, which are repeated by boys, without their comprehending the uſe or application of them, he was immediately taught to read the language, and thus obtained a more ſpeedy knowledge of its rules of conſtruction, and had them more ſtrongly impreſſed upon his mind, from meeting with continual examples of their application. To this mode of teaching, he attributed the facility with which he made himſelf maſter of thoſe languages; and he thought that, if adopted in common uſe, it would very much diminiſh the weight of the moſt frequent objection to the ſtudy of them—that a great portion of time is waſted in it, which might be much more beneficially employed. This reform in the preſent mode of education, is recommended by him, in a ſeries of letters which he publiſhed, on the ſubject of the ancient languages, and which contain one of the moſt able and liberal defences of them, that has yet appeared.

The knowledge he poſſeſſed of his own language, was not inferior to that which he had acquired of others. He was a correct and ele-

gant Engliſh ſcholar, had a taſte for the belles ... acquainted with the force and beauties of langua... uncommon facility, and in an eaſy, conciſe, forcible ſtile. Hi... was often employed in the ſervice, and for the gratification of his fellow-citizens, and generally to promote ſome humane or uſeful deſign. This publication is indebted to him for many intereſting communications, and more particularly for the greater part of the Life of that eminently uſeful man, Dr. Franklin, which appeared in the Aſylum, not long after his death. In this performance, he diſplays his zeal for the honor of the deceaſed, and the credit of our country, by the induſtry with which he expoſes the attempts of ſome European writers, to rob our illuſtrious fellow-citizen of the reputation of ſome of thoſe diſcoveries, to which he proves him to have an undoubted claim.

But though he had derived much from the learning and labours of others, he owed no leſs to his own reſearch and obſervation, and to the ſtrength of his own mind.—Though acquainted with the principles of different ſyſtems, he was far from being wedded to any, or blindly adopting it, without reaſon and inveſtigation. His diſcriminating mind ſelected thoſe parts only that could abide the teſt of the cooleſt examination; for his imagination, though warm, was ſufficiently under the reſtraint of reaſon, to prevent him from being carried away by plauſible or ingenious theories.

He was leſs than moſt men under the awe and influence of great names. Books, however juſtly eminent the authors of them, he regarded not as authorities, as the meaſure of our opinions, or as the articles of our belief; but rather as affording the materials of thought and enquiry, and laying the foundation, on which we are to build the ſuperſtructure, of our own ſyſtems and opinions.

His ideas were, accordingly, on many ſubjects, entirely original. He had deviated from the commonly received track of opinion, and opened to himſelf, what he thought, a nearer and more direct road to truth.

Had he lived, his inquiſitive and penetrating genius might have rendered him an uſeful pioneer in the cauſe of truth; exploring her through paths, where minds leſs bold and original, would not have adventured.

Poſſeſſing theſe talents and qualifications, which were ſo well calculated to render him a great ornament, and moſt uſeful member, of ſociety, and endued with a diſpoſition, which was not only a ſecurity againſt their abuſe, but enſured the uniform application of them to promote the moſt valuable purpoſes, his premature death, before he had attained his twenty-fourth year, deſerves to be regretted as a public loſs.

To the circle of his friends and acquaintance, this loſs is particularly ſenſible. To theſe he had highly recommended and endeared himſelf, by the mildneſs and cheerfulneſs of his temper, the ſenſibility and humanity of his diſpoſition, the unaſſuming modeſty of his manners, and his intereſting and animated converſation, which was always liberal and rational, and free from malice or perſonal ſatire.

PHILOSOPHICALLY CONSIDERED.

[*From Paine's Rights of Man—Part. II.*]

IN all my publications, where the matter would admit, I have been an advocate for commerce, becauſe I am a friend to its effects. It is a pacific ſyſtem, operating to cordialize mankind, by rendering nations, as well as individuals, uſeful to each other. As to mere theoretical reformation, I have never preached it up. The moſt effectual proceſs is that of improving the condition of man by means of his intereſt; and it is on this ground that I take my ſtand.

If commerce were permitted to act to the univerſal extent it is capable, it would extirpate the ſyſtem of war, and produce a revolution in the uncivilized ſtate of governments. The invention of commerce has ariſen ſince thoſe governments began, and is the greateſt approach towards univerſal civilization, that has yet been made by any means not immediately flowing from moral principles.

Whatever has a tendency to promote the civil intercourſe of nations, by an exchange of benefits, is a ſubject as worthy of philoſophy as of politics. Commerce is no other than the traffic of two individuals, multiplied on a ſcale of numbers; and by the ſame rule that nature intended the intercourſe of two, ſhe intended that of all. For this purpoſe ſhe has diſtributed the materials of manufactures and commerce, in various and diſtant parts of a nation and of the world; and as they cannot be procured by war ſo cheaply or commodiouſly as by commerce, ſhe has rendered the latter the means of extirpating the former.

As the two are nearly the oppoſites of each other, conſequently, the uncivilized ſtate of European governments is injurious to commerce. Every kind of deſtruction or embarraſſment ſerves to leſſen the quantity, and it matters but little in what part of the commercial world the reduction begins. Like blood, it cannot be taken from the parts, without being taken from the whole maſs in circulation, and all partake of the loſs. When the ability of any nation to buy is deſtroyed, it equally involves the ſeller. Could the government of England deſtroy the commerce of all other nations, ſhe would moſt effectually ruin her own.

It is poſſible that a nation may be the carrier for the world, but ſhe cannot be the merchant. She cannot be the ſeller and the buyer of her own merchandize. The ability to buy muſt reſide out of herſelf; and, therefore, the proſperity of any commercial nation is regulated by the proſperity of the reſt. If they are poor ſhe cannot be rich, and her condition, be it what it may, is an index of the height of the commercial tide in other nations.

That the principles of commerce, and its univerſal operation may be underſtood, without underſtanding the practice, is a poſition that reaſon will not deny; and it is on this ground only that I argue the ſubject. It is one thing in the counting-houſe, in the world it is another. With reſpect to its operation, it muſt neceſſarily be contemplated as a reciprocal thing; that only one half its powers reſides

within the nation, and that the whole is as effe
deſtroying the half that reſides without, as if the de
committed on that which is within ; for neither can act without
other.

When in the laſt, as well as in former wars, the commerce of England ſunk, it was becauſe the general quantity was leſſened every where ; and it now riſes, becauſe commerce is in a riſing ſtate in every nation. If England, at this day, imports and exports more than at any former period, the nations with which ſhe trades muſt neceſſarily do the ſame ; her imports are their exports, and *vice verſa*.

There can be no ſuch thing as a nation flouriſhing alone in commerce ; ſhe can only participate ; and the deſtruction of it in any part muſt neceſſarily affect all. When, therefore, governments are at war, the attack is made upon the common ſtock of commerce, and the conſequence is the ſame as if each had attacked his own.

The preſent increaſe of commerce is not to be attributed to miniſters, or to any political contrivances, but to its own natural operations in conſequence of peace. The regular markets had been deſtroyed, the channels of trade broken up, the high road of the ſeas infeſted with robbers of every nation, and the attention of the world called to other objects. Thoſe interruptions have ceaſed and peace has reſtored the deranged condition of things to their proper order.

It is worth remarking, that every nation reckons the balance of trade in its own favour ; and therefore ſomething muſt be irregular in the common ideas upon this ſubject.

The fact, however, is true, according to what is called a balance; and it is from this cauſe that commerce is univerſally ſupported. Every nation feels the advantage, or it would abandon the practice; but the deception lies in the mode of making up the accounts, and in attributing what are called profits to a wrong cauſe.

Mr. Pitt has ſometimes amuſed himſelf, by ſhewing what he called a balance of trade, from the cuſtom-houſe books. This mode of callculation, not only affords no rule that is true, but one that is falſe.

In the firſt place, every cargo that departs from the cuſtom-houſe, appears on the books as an export ; and according to the cuſtom-houſe balance, the loſſes at ſea, and by foreign failures, are all reckoned on the ſide of profit, becauſe they appear as exports.

Secondly, becauſe the importation by the ſmuggling trade does not appear on the cuſtom-houſe books, to arrange againſt the exports.

No balance, therefore, as applying to ſuperior advantages, can be drawn from thoſe documents ; and if we examine the natural operation of commerce, the idea is fallacious ; and if true, would ſoon be injurious. The great ſupport of commerce conſiſts in the balance being a level of benefits among all nations.

Two merchants of different nations, trading together, will both become rich, and each makes the balance in his own favour ; conſequently, they do not get rich out of each other ; and it is the ſame with reſpect to the nations in which they reſide. The caſe muſt be,

...get rich out of its own means, and increaſes ... by ...ething which it procures from another in exchange.

If a merchant in England ſends an article of Engliſh manufacture abroad, which coſts him a ſhilling at home, and imports ſomething which ſells for two, he makes a balance of one ſhilling in his own favour: but this is not gained out of the foreign nation or the foreign merchant, for he alſo does the ſame by the article he receives, and neither has a balance of advantage upon the other. The original value of the two articles in their proper countries was but two ſhillings; but by changing their places, they acquire a new idea of value, equal to double what they had at firſt, and that encreaſed value is equally divided.

There is no otherwiſe a balance on foreign than on domeſtic commerce. The merchants of London and Newcaſtle trade on the ſame principles, as if they reſided in different nations, and make their balances in the ſame manner: yet London does not get rich out of Newcaſtle, any more than Newcaſtle out of London; but coals, the merchandize of Newcaſtle, have an additional value at London, and London merchandize has the ſame at Newcaſtle.

Though the principle of all commerce is the ſame, the domeſtic, in a national view, is the part the moſt beneficial; becauſe the whole of the advantages, on both ſides, reſts within the nation; whereas, in foreign commerce, it is only a participation of one half.

The moſt unprofitable of all commerce is that connected with foreign dominion. To a few individuals it may be beneficial, merely becauſe it is commerce; but to the nation it is a loſs. The expence of maintaining dominion more than abſorbs the profits of any trade. It does not increaſe the general quantity in the world, but operates to leſſen it; and as a greater maſs would be afloat by relinquiſhing dominion, the participation without the expence would be more valuable than a greater quantity with it.

But it is impoſſible to engroſs commerce by dominion; and therefore it is ſtill more fallacious. It cannot exiſt in confined channels, and neceſſarily breaks out by regular or irregular means, that defeat the attempt; and to ſucceed would be ſtill worſe. France, ſince the revolution, has been more than indifferent as to foreign poſſeſſions; and other nations will become the ſame, when they inveſtigate the ſubject with reſpect to commerce.

To the expence of dominion is to be added that of navies, and when the amount of the two is ſubtracted from the profits of commerce, it will appear, that what is called the balance of trade, even admitting it to exiſt, is not enjoyed by the nation, but abſorbed by the government.

The idea of having navies for the protection of commerce is deluſive. It is putting the means of deſtruction for the means of protection. Commerce needs no other protection than the reciprocal intereſt which every nation feels in ſupporting it—it is common ſtock—it exiſts by a balance of advantages to all; and the only interruption it meets, is from the preſent uncivilized ſtate of governments, which it is its common intereſt to reform.

THE MONTHLY ANTHOLOGY.

FOR

SEPTEMBER, 1809.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

ON THE

DANGERS AND DUTIES OF MEN OF LETTERS;

AN ADDRESS, PRONOUNCED BEFORE THE SOCIETY OF

Φ B K,

ON THURSDAY, AUGUST 31st, 1809.

BY J. S. BUCKMINSTER.

PRINTED AT THE REQUEST OF THE SOCIETY.

It is not without reluctance, my friends, that I appear before you this morning; not because I feel any distrust of your candour, but because I find it so difficult to offer you any thing, which shall be worthy of your candour. The orator, on this occasion, as he has no definite object, is not restrained in the choice of his topicks. This appears indeed to be a privilege; but others, I doubt not, as well as myself, have found themselves embarrassed by the liberty of choosing without direction, and their spirits exhausted by indecision before the thoughts were fixed, as they were at last, by necessity.

When I look round, however, on those whom I am called to address, and find them to be men with whom learning is at least in esteem; men too, whose mutual friendships, as they commenced on classick ground, will always preserve, I trust, something of the raciness of their origin, I should think myself unfaithful to this occasion, and to the character of the audience, if I were to choose any other subject, than that which is common to us as scholars. For, however different our professions, opposite our connections, wide our opinions, or uncertain our destinies in life, in this we agree, that letters have been our study, perhaps our delight. By these we are to live; and by these too, *si qua fata aspera sinant!* we are to be remembered. In your company, then, I have no inclination to stray beyond the gardens

of the academy, or within the noise of the city and the forum.

Is there a man who now hears me, who would not rather belong to an enlightened and virtuous community, than to the mightiest empire of the world distinguished only by its vastness? If there is, let him cast his eye along the records of states. What do we now know of the vast unlettered empires of the east? The far extended conquests of the Assyrian hardly detain us a moment in the annals of the world, while the little state of Athens will forever be the delight of the historian and the pride of letters; preserving by the genius of her writers the only remembrance of the barbarian powers which overwhelmed her. To come down to our own times; who would not rather have been a citizen of the free and polished republick of Geneva, than to wander a prince in the vast dominions of the Czar, or bask in the beams of the present emperour of a desolated continent.

In the usual course of national aggrandizement, it is almost certain, that those of you, who shall attain to old age, will find yourselves the citizens of an empire unparalleled in extent; but is it probable, that you will have the honour of belonging to a nation of men of letters? The review of our past literary progress does not authorize very lofty expectations, neither does it leave us entirely without hope.

It is our lot to have been born in an age of tremendous revolution; and the world is yet covered with the wrecks of its ancient glory, especially of its literary renown. The fury of that storm, which rose in France, is passed and spent, but its effects have been felt through the whole system of liberal education. The foul spirit of innovation and sophistry has been seen wandering in the very groves of the Lyceum, and is not yet completely exorcised, though the spell is broken. When we look back to the records of our learning before the American revolution, we find, or think we find, (at least in New England) more accomplished scholars than we have since produced; men, who conversed more familiarly than their children with the mighty dead; men, who felt more than we do the charm of classical accomplishments; men, in short, who had not learned to be ashamed of being often found drinking at the wells of antiquity*. But so greatly have our habits of thinking been disturbed by the revolutions of the last thirty years, that the progress of our education, and, of course, the character of our learning have not a little suffered. It is true, we have shared the detriment with Europe; but the effect upon us, though perhaps

* Ch. Justice Pratt, Jas. Otis, Prof. Sewall, Bowdoin, Winthrop, Chauncy, perhaps from the natural effect of distance, appear to us to have been eminent scholars. Whether in New England we have since produced their superiours, *docti judicent*. There are now living a few men, who were educated before the revolution, whom we should be proud, though not perhaps at liberty, to name. We can only wish, that they may long animate us by their living example, rather than by their remembrance.

temporary, has been peculiarly extensive and unfortunate, because our government and our habits were in some degree unsettled.

In France † and in some other countries of Europe, what literature has lost seems to be compensated by the progress of

† We have lately seen a discourse of M. Dacier, Secretaire perpetuel de la Classe d'Histoire & de Literature ancienne, de l'Institut, delivered 20th February, 1808, before the Emperour, on presenting a report of the progress of literature in France during the last twenty years. This class of the Institute, which comprises very nearly the same objects with the ancient Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres, and to which its remaining members have been transferred, was charged by the Emperour with an enquiry into this subject, preparatory to some steps, which will be taken to revive these studies. The following extracts are made here; the *first*, because it gives a very accurate definition of the different objects and value of literature and of physical science; the *others*, because they contain the deliberate result of the inquiries of a body of men of letters on the present state of French learning.

"Si les sciences de calcul et d'observation ajoutent à nos jouissances physiques, et nous en font espérer de nouvelles pour l'avenir, les sciences morales exercent leur empire sur l'ame; elles l'éclairent, la dirigent, la soutiennent, l'élèvent ou la tempèrent; elles avancent ou conservent la civilisation; elles apprennent à l'homme à se connoître lui-même, et lui donnent dans tous les temps, dans tous les lieux, dans toutes les conditions, ce bonheur dont les autres sciences ne peuvent lui promettre que des moyens." Page 5.

"Votre Majesté verra que, malgré les troubles politiques qui ont agité la France, elle n'est, jusqu'à présent, restée en arrière dans aucune des branches de la littérature; mais c'est avec un sentiment pénible que nous sommes forcés de lui faire apercevoir que plusieurs sont menacées d'un anéantissement prochain et presque total. La philologie, qui est la base de toute bonne littérature, et sur laquelle reposent la certitude de l'histoire et la connoissance du passé, qui a répandu tant d'éclat sur l'Académie des belles-lettres que notre classe doit continuer, ne trouve presque plus personne pour la cultiver. Les savans dont les travaux fertilisent encore chaque jour son domaine, restes, pour la plupart, d'une génération qui va disparoître, ne voient croître autour d'eux qu'un trop petit nombre d'hommes qui puissent les remplacer; et cette lumière publique, propre à encourager et à juger leurs travaux, diminue sensiblement de clarté, et son foyer se rétrécit tous les jours de plus en plus. Faire connoître le mal à votre Majesté, c'est s'assurer que votre main puissante saura y appliquer le remède." Page 6, 7.

"Cependant, en France, quelques hommes de lettres continuoient, dans le silence de la solitude, leurs études et leurs travaux; et, dès que les circonstances l'ont permis, on a vu paroître dans les collections de l'Institut un assez grand nombre de notices de manuscrits et de mémoires relatifs à notre histoire du moyen âge et à la diplomatique. Le quatorzième volume du Recueil des historiens de France a été publié par les ordres et sous les auspices du Gouvernement; le quinzième s'imprime, ainsi que le quinzième volume du Recueil des ordonnances des rois de la troisième dynastie francoise. D'autres ouvrages du même genre, qui ont été interrompus, attendent encore, à la vérité, des continuateurs; et nous sommes obligés d'avouer, quoiqu'à regret, à votre Majesté, que nous ne pouvons espérer qu'ils en trouvent tous, à moins qu'un de vos regards puissans ne ranime ce genre d'études dans lequel la France s'est illustrée pendant plus de deux siècles, *et qu'elle paroît aujourd'hui avoir presque entièrement abandonné*." — Pages 13, 14.

science. In England the trunk of her national learning was so deeply rooted, that it has been swayed only, and not injured by this tempest of reform. It yet retains its vigour, and we doubt not will entirely recover its former direction. But here, the French revolution, immediately succeeding our own, found the minds of men in an unsettled state, and, as you may well imagine, did not help to compose them. Our forms of education were becoming more popular and superficial; the knowledge of antiquity began to be despised; and the hard labour of learning to be dispensed with. Soon the ancient strictness of discipline disappeared; the curriculum of studies was shortened in favour of the impatience or the necessities of candidates for literary honours; the pains of application were derided, and a pernicious notion of equality was introduced, which has not only tainted our sentiments, but impaired our vigour, and crippled our literary eminence.

This secret influence of publick opinion, though not easily described, has been felt and lamented by many of us who were educated in the present generation. We have many steps to recover; and before we shall travel in the suite of the learned in the old world, we have some long strides to make. Our poets and historians, our criticks and orators,* the men of whom posterity are to stand in awe and be instructed are yet to appear among us. The men of letters who are to direct our taste, mould our genius, and inspire our emulation; the men, in fact, whose writings are to be the depositories of our national greatness, have not yet shown themselves to the world. But if we are not mistaken in the signs of the times, the genius of our literature begins to show symptoms of vigour, and to meditate a bolder flight; and the generation which is to succeed us will be formed on better models, and leave a brighter track. The spirit of criticism begins to plume itself, and education, as it assumes a more learned form, will take a higher aim. If we are not misled by our hopes, the dream of ignorance is at least disturbed; and there are signs that the period is approaching, in which it will be said of our own country, *tuus jam* regnat Apollo.

You then, my friends, are destined, I hope, to witness the dawn of our Augustan age, and to contribute to its glory. Whatever may be your place in society, I am confident you will not willingly discard the love of virtue and of knowledge; and it is with this confidence, that I shall now venture to speak to you of some of THE DANGERS AND DUTIES OF MEN OF LETTERS. The subject is copious; and what will now be offered is a mere

* That we have had poets, criticks, and historians, is not denied. Belknap and Minot have furnished us good specimens, and Dr. Holmes valuable materials, for which our future historians will give them credit and thanks. All that is meant here is, that we have not yet produced standards, or models in these departments of literature. We have also now among us men, who want nothing but the discipline of a more thorough education, to be consummate orators, worthy of any age or nation.

essay. If it should be found suitable to this occasion, and to the actual state of our literature, my purpose will be answered.

Every where there are dangers and evils, of which some affect the intellectual improvement, and others are unfavourable to the moral worth of literary men. In this country, especially, it too oftens happens, that the young man, who is to live by his talents, and to make the most of the name of a scholar, is tempted to turn his literary credit to the quickest account, by early making himself of consequence to the people, or rather to some of their factions. From the moment that he is found yielding himself up to their service, or hunting after popular favour, his time, his studies, and his powers yet in their bloom, are all lost to learning. Instead of giving his days and nights to the study of the profound masters of political wisdom, instead of patiently receiving the lessons of history and of practical philosophy, he prematurely takes a part in all the dissensions of the day. His leisure is wasted on the profligate productions of demagogues, and his curiosity bent on the minutiae of local politicks. The consequence is, that his mind is so much dissipated, or his passions disturbed, that the quiet speculations of the scholar can no longer detain him. He hears at a distance the bustle of the Comitia—He rushes out of the grove of Egeria, and Numa and the Muses call after him in vain. It is, perhaps, one of the incurable evils of our constitution of society, that this ambition of immediate notoriety and rapid success is too early excited, and thus the promises of literary excellence are so frequently superseded.

The history of genius is not wanting in examples of powers thus perverted, and passions too early inflamed. If we may go so far back for examples, we find them in Alcibiades and the Gracchi; men educated with all the advantages which Greece and Rome could bestow, and yet lost to every thing but faction. There are no doubt many other instances, but most of them are not now to be recovered from oblivion; for the records of civil dissention, let it be remembered, are not so lasting as those of learning. Here I should be tempted to adduce even the name of Burke, and support myself by the authority of Goldsmith, who ventured early to lament that

> ——— he narrowed his mind,
> And to party gave up what was meant for mankind.

But the awful history of our own times has persuaded me to forbear; for of Burke, at least, posterity will never cease to say, *what he gave up to party, he gave to mankind.* The life of Milton, however, is a memorable instance of the temporary degradation of learning. For, notwithstanding the sublime fiction of Gray,* that the loss of his sight was occasioned by the brightness of his celestial visions, it is, alas! nothing but a fiction. Those fine

* Ode on the progress of Poesy, III. 2.

orbs were quenched in the service of a vulgar and usurping faction; and had they not been thus early "closed in endless night," the world, perhaps, would have wanted the Paradise lost, and that master spirit of England have been wasted in more praises of Cromwell and more ribaldry against Salmasius. You, then, who are impatient to take a part in public life, remember, that there is hardly to be found a consummate statesman or warriour in a literary age, who was not himself a man of letters. I will not weary you by an enumeration; but you will instantly call to mind Alexander, the accomplished scholar of Aristotle; Caesar, at the head of Rome, the *deliciae literatorum;* Charlemagne, master of all the science that an ignorant age could afford; Alfred, the philosophical translator of Boethius; and Frederick, who gathered around him the great men of his age, not so much their patron, as their competitor.

On the other hand, there are some finely attempered spirits, who, disgusted at the grossness which belongs to the common contests and occupations of active life, are in danger of entirely relinquishing its real duties in the luxurious leisure of study. In the actual state of the politicks of our country, this opposite temptation has been already felt by many studious minds. The young man, early enamoured of literature, sometimes casts a disdainful glance at the world, and then sinks to repose in the lap of his mistress. He finds it easier to read than to think, and still easier to think than to act. His indisposition increases by indulgence. His learning becomes effeminate. He reads to furnish amusement for his imagination, not to provide materials for intellectual greatness. He passes his time among the muses, it is true; but it is the graces, who mingle in the circle, that engross his attention; and his life, though nominally given to contemplation, is little else than "to sport with Amaryllis in the shade, and play with the tangles of Neaera's hair." He goes to his books, to enjoy a certain mild delirium of the mind, regardless of the claims of society, and of the account, which he must give at last, of his studies and advantages. Whenever he comes out into the world, he thinks it was not made for him; and soon returns in disgust, to seek relief in that employment which has been admirably called the "invisible riot of the mind, that secret prodigality of being, secure from detection, and fearless of reproach*."

The history of letters does not at this moment suggest to me a more fortunate parallel between the effects of active and of inactive learning, than in the well known characters of Cicero and Atticus. Let me hold them up to your observation, not because Cicero was faultless, or Atticus always to blame, but because, like you, they were the citizens of a republick. They lived in an age of learning and of dangers, and acted upon opposite principles, when Rome was to be saved, if saved at all,

* Rambler, No. 89.

by the virtuous energy of her most accomplished minds. If we look now for Atticus, we find him in the quiet of his library, surrounded with his books; while Cicero was passing through the regular course of publick honours and services, where all the treasures of his mind were at the command of his country. If we follow them, we find Atticus pleasantly wandering among the ruins of Athens, purchasing up statues and antiques; while Cicero was at home blasting the projects of Cataline, and at the head of the senate, like the tutelary spirit of his country, as the storm was gathering, secretly watching the doubtful movements of Caesar. If we look to the period of the civil wars, we find Atticus always reputed, indeed, to belong to the party of the friends of liberty, yet originally dear to Sylla, and intimate with Clodius, recommending himself to Caesar by his neutrality, courted by Anthony, and connected with Octavius, poorly concealing the epicureanism of his principles under the ornaments of literature and the splendour of his benefactions; till at last this inoffensive and polished friend of successive usurpers hastens out of life to escape from the pains of a lingering disease. Turn now to Cicero, the only great man at whom Caesar always trembled, the only great man whom falling Rome did *not* fear. Do you tell me, that his hand once offered incense to the dictator? Remember, it was the gift of gratitude only and not of servility; for the same hand launched its indignation against the infamous Anthony, whose power was more to be dreaded, and whose revenge pursued him till this father of his country gave his head to the executioner without a struggle, for he knew that Rome was no longer to be saved! If, my friends, you would feel what learning and genius and virtue should aspire to in a day of peril and depravity, when you are tired of the factions of the city, the battles of Caesar, the crimes of the triumvirate, and the splendid court of Augustus, do not go and repose in the easy chair of Atticus, but refresh your virtues and your spirits with the contemplation of Cicero.*

A little observation of the state of knowledge in this country brings to mind the remark of Johnson on the learning of Scot-

* The character of Cicero has seldom been contemplated, as it ought to be, in the whole; and therefore of late years, especially since the translations of Melmoth, it has become fashionable to talk of his weakness, and even to impeach his integrity. But the true difference between him and Atticus in their political conduct was, that Cicero was mistaken in always attempting to reconcile the contending parties in the state, when he would have done better to maintain by vigorous measures the cause which he approved; while Atticus was so deliberately or selfishly inactive, that he would not even take the pains to conciliate. They who form their opinions of Atticus only from the panegyrick of Cornelius Nepos, may perhaps be correct; but even they will esteem him with more or less reserve according to their previous notions of virtue and their habits of life. But there are some reasons for thinking, not only that Cicero understood his character better than we do, but, notwithstanding their long familiarity, esteemed it less. See Oeuvres de St. Real. vol. 1. and his translation of the letters to Atticus, in notis.

land: "that it is like bread in a besieged town, where every one gets a little, but no man a full meal." So it is among us. There is a diffusion of information widely and thinly spread, which serves to content us, rather than to make us ambitious of more. Our scholars are often employed in loose and undirected studies. They read, it is true, but without an object; and lose their time in superficial and unconnected inquiries. Such is the want of leisure in some of our professions, and the necessity of turning our knowledge to immediate account; so defective in many places are our rudiments of education, and so inadequate the provision made for instructers; so insulated are our men of study in this vast territory, and such is, after all, the genius of our government, that we find few who are willing to pass through the long and severe discipline of early application, and still fewer of whom we can say, γηρασκουσι διδασκομενοι. We have yet to form systems of more effectual instruction, and to assign the departments of literary labour, where exertion shall be encouraged by suitable rewards. In the mean while, in this unsettled state of our studies, let us not weaken our powers by feebly grasping at every thing. We have been long enough flying from novelty to novelty, and regaling upon the flowers of literature, till we begin to know *where* learning may be found; it is time *now* to think of making it our own. The most powerful minds, which the world ever knew, have sometimes dissipated their powers in the multiplicity of their pursuits. Gibbon,* in his masterly portrait of Leibnitz, concludes with comparing him to those heroes, "whose empire has been lost in the ambition of universal conquest." If then a mind like his, formed for intellectual supremacy, may suffer by designing more than it can accomplish, or by neglecting to concentrate its powers and pursuits, let us not spend *our* lives in hastily traversing regions of knowledge, which we certainly shall never conquer, and which we may never inhabit, but turn to the patient cultivation of some of the provinces of literature.

The moral defects and faults of temper, to which scholars are exposed, are not peculiar to any country. It is every where the natural tendency of a life of retirement and contemplation, to generate the notion of innocence and moral security; but men of letters should remember, that, in the eye of reason and of christianity, simple unprofitableness is always a crime. They should know too, that there are solitary diseases of the imagination not less fatal to the mind, than the vices of society. He who pollutes his fancy with his books may in fact be more culpable, than he who is seduced into the haunts of debauchery by the force of passion or example. He who by his sober studies only feeds his selfishness or his pride of knowledge may be more to blame, than the pedant or the coxcomb in literature,

* Antiquities of the house of Brunsw. Ch. 1. Sect. 1. Misc. works, vol. iii. 8vo.

though not so ridiculous. That learning, whatever it may be, which lives and dies with the possessor, is more worthless than his wealth, which descends to his posterity; and where the heart remains uncultivated and the affections sluggish, the mere man of curious erudition may stand, indeed, as an object of popular admiration, but he stands like the occasional palaces of ice in the regions of the north, the work of vanity, lighted up with artificial lustre, yet cold, useless, and uninhabited, and soon to pass away without leaving a trace of their existence. You, then, who feel yourselves sinking under the gentle pressure of sloth, or who seek in learned seclusion that moral security, which is the reward only of virtuous resolution, remember, you do not escape from temptations, much less from responsibility by retiring to the repose and silence of your libraries.

I pass over many of the faults of scholars, and what Bacon calls the "peccant humours of learning," such as the love of singularity, contempt for practical wisdom, the weakness of literary vanity, and the disease of pedantry, to warn you against two principal evils, of which one is that alienation of affection, so frequent among men of letters. Their history is too often that of factions and intrigues, of envy and recrimination. The *odium theologicum* has long since become a proverb; and perhaps there are few writers, whose libraries have not at some time been a repository of poisoned darts, and implements of literary warfare. In modern times the licentiousness of criticism has aggravated this evil. The shafts of Apollo, the god of criticism, are as numerous, and often as envenomed as those, which the same god, under a different character, launched among the Greeks at the prayer of Chryses his offended priest. It is fortunate, however, that in the arrows of criticism the smart of the wound is greater than the danger. Authors, jealous of reputation, or conscious of merit, have lost all the influence of their philosophy and all the meekness of their religion under anonymous attack, or in their ardour for repelling it. It is painful to dwell on the animosities of the learned, however just they may sometimes appear; but it is well for us to know, that the last lesson, which great minds learn, is to bear a superiour, or be just to a rival. Even Newton and Leibnitz (and I can go no higher) were alienated and debased by their mutual jealousy. They separated, they accused, they recriminated; and the cool mathematicians of Europe were heated by their quarrels. When we read the works of these two sublime men, we should as soon have expected a collision in the celestial spheres, which they were in the habit of contemplating; and, if they have met in the calm regions of intellectual purity and light, no doubt they are content to leave with posterity their angry dispute about the invention of fluxions, and wonder at the imperfection of terrestial greatness.*

* This dispute is related with the greatest minuteness in the life of Leibnitz, by M. le Chevalier de Jaucourt, prefixed to the edition of the Essais

The other dangerous infirmity of scholars, against which we should be always on our guard, is the indiscriminate imitation of the eminent. There are many, who seek to show their relation to men of genius by exhibiting some kindred deformity. If they know any thing of the history of authors, we find them quoting their authority, and seeking shelter behind their defects; if not, they content themselves with copying the irregularities of some living and contemporary genius. It is so old a fiction that contempt of rules and order is a constituent of genius, that one would think it should have lost its authority. We have had deep philosophers, who would not have been suspected of thinking, except for their occasional absences of mind; and fine spirits, who were thought to resemble Horace, because they could roar a catch, or empty a cask of Falernian. We have had satirists with nothing of Dryden but his vulgarity, and of Churchill but his malice; wits, who got drunk, because Addison was not always sober; lickerish writers in imitation of Sterne; and others foul from the pages of Swift. We have had paradoxes and confessions in the style of Rousseau, without any of his genius, and freethinkers innumerable of the school of Voltaire, who could not afford to be at once wits and christians. In a more harmless way, we have had sterile writers, whose veins would flow only at particular seasons; puny moralists, talking big like Johnson; orators, with nothing, as one may say, of Tully but his wart, and of Demosthenes but his stammer; in short, my friends, we have had enough of "the contortions of the Sybil, without her inspiration."

The infirmities of noble minds are often so consecrated by their greatness, that an unconscious imitation of their peculiarities, which are real defects, may sometimes be pardoned in their admirers. But to copy their vices, or to hunt in their works for those very lines, which, when dying, they would most wish to blot, is a different offence. I know of nothing in literature so unpardonable as this. He who poaches among the labours of the learned only to find what there is polluted in their language, or licentious in their works; he who searches the biography of men of genius to find precedents for his follies, or palliations of his own stupid depravity, can be compared to nothing more strongly than to the man, who should walk through the gallery of antiques, and every day gaze upon the Apollo, the Venus, or the Laocoon, and yet, *proh pudor!* bring away an imagination impressed with nothing but the remembrance that they were naked.

de Theodicée, printed at Amsterdam, 1747, 2 vols. 12mo. a most interesting piece of biography. The writer is very much disposed to give to Leibnitz not only this honour of the invention of the differential calculus, but the credit of behaving the most honourably in the dispute; but this, I believe, is not the general opinion; at least among the English mathematicians.

But I must pursue this subject no further. My friends! you who are now to enter into the world with the fruits of your education here, and you too who have for many years made learning your employment, permit me to remind you, that all our acquisitions are due to that country, which gave us birth, to that society, which protects and encourages us, to those parents and friends, who have aided our progress, and to that religion, which is the strength of our excellence, and which alone promises eternal life and satisfaction to the mind of man panting after truth. Truth, truth is indeed the ultimate object of human study; and though the pleasure of learning is often in itself a sufficient motive and reward, yet are we not to forget that we all owe something to society. That well known tendency of men of letters to inertia and repose must, therefore, be resolutely counteracted. You must tear yourselves away, my friends, from the *noctes caenaeque Deorum*, where you hold converse with the fine spirits of former days, and inquire what you may do for mankind. Learning is not a superfluity; and utility must, after all, be the object of your studies. The theologian, like Paley, who makes truth intelligible to the humblest; the preacher, like Fenelon, who imparts the divine warmth of his own soul to the souls of his readers; the moralist, like Johnson, who "gives ardour to virtue and confidence to truth;" the jurist, like Mansfield, who contributes to the perfect administration of justice; the statesman, who stems the torrent of corruption, and directs the rising virtue of an indignant people; the philosopher, who leaves in his writings the pregnant germs of future discoveries; the historian, and the poet, who not only preserve the names of the great, but, in words that burn, inflame us with the love of their excellence, are of more value to the community, than a whole cabinet of *dilettanti*, and more worthy of your imitation than Magliabechi, reposing on the ponderous tomes of his library, a mere *corpus literarum*.

You, too, who are about to enter upon the business of manly life, should know, that literature, whether it be her pride, or her misfortune, will disdain to divide the empire of your heart. She scorns to enter into partnership with the love of money, or the ambition of noisy distinction, or with any other inordinate affection. Hardly will she submit to be encumbered with the common worldly anxieties, much less to follow in the train of lust and corruption. Genius, it is true, sometimes bursts through all these impediments; and in the midst of vice and dissipation, and even in the embarrassments of love, has been known to plant his standard on the top of Parnassus. But in general, and especially in our own country, nothing is more just than the remark of Quintilian: quod si agrorum nimia cura, et sollicitior rei familiaris diligentia, et venandi voluptas, et dati spectaculis dies, multum studiis auferunt, quid putamus facturas cupiditatem, avaritiam, invidiam? Quis inter haec literis, aut ulli bonae arti

locus? Non, hercle, magis quam frugibus, in terra sentibus & rubis occupata*.

Indeed, my friends, it is time to have done with our short cuts to reputation. Let us no longer think of finding a royal road to learning. It is time that our libraries were better furnished, our presses less prolifick, and we not so impatient of being unknown. If there is any thing which particularly distinguishes the literature of the seventeenth century from that of the present times, it is that then the men of letters were willing to study, and now they are in haste to publish. That was the age of scholars; this of readers and of printers. The great men of that age were formed like the trees of a hundred years growth, by perpetually drawing nutriment from the soil, and at the same time drinking in the pure air of heaven; while we, like the ivy, slender and rapid in our growth, and full of leaves, are, I fear, of short continuance, except as we learn *to cling around them.*

I should be unfaithful to myself and to the subject, if I should leave it, without mentioning it as the most solemn of our obligations as scholars, to take care that we give no currency to errour or sanction to vice. Unfortunately, there is enough of corrupt literature in the world; and when the mind has once begun to make that its poison, which ought to be its medicine, I know not how the soul is to be recovered, except by the power of God in his word. Scholars! I dare not say, that the cause of religion *depends* upon the fidelity of the learned; but I do say, that gratitude and every motive of virtue demand of you a reverence for the gospel. Protestant christianity has in former times given learning such support, as learning never can repay. † The history of christendom bears witness to this. The names of Erasmus, of Grotius, of Bacon and a host of luminaries of science, who rise up like a wall of fire around the cause of christianity, will bear witness to this. They cry out in the language of Tully; O vitae dux! o virtutis indagatrix, expultrixque vitiorum! quid non modo nos, sed omnino vita hominum sine te esse potuisset.‡ Without this for the guide and terminus of your studies, you may "but go down to hell, with a great deal of wisdom." My friends, infidelity has had one triumph in our days; and we have seen learning, as well as virtue, trampled under the hoofs of its infuriated steeds, let loose by the hand of impiety. Fanaticism, too, has had more than one day of desolation; and its consequences have been such, as ought always to put

* If a solicitous care of our estates, and the love of sporting, and a passion for the theatre, subtract so much from our studies, what can be expected from a mind engrossed with cupidity, avarice, and evil passions? In such a life what place is there for letters, or any honourable pursuit? Indeed, we might as well expect a harvest from a field overgrown with briars and brambles! Quinctilian. Inst. Orat. Lib. 12. cap. 1.

† See Dr. Jortin's first charge, entitled "Christianity, the preserver and supporter of Literature." Serm. vol. 7. p. 353.

‡ Tusc. Quaest. Lib. 5. § 2.

learning on its guard. Remember, then, the place where we have been educated, and the pious bounty which has enriched it for our sakes! Think of the ancestors who have transmitted to us our christian liberties! Nay, hear the voice of posterity, pleading with you for her peace, and beseeching you not to send down your names, stained with profligacy and irreligion. Do you want examples of learned christians? I could not recount them all in an age. You need not to be told that

> Learning has borne *such* fruit in other days,
> On all her branches; piety has found
> Friends in the friends of science, and true prayer
> Has flowed from lips wet with Castalian dews*.

Yes, it has! We have known and loved such men, and, thank God, have been loved by them. There is now present to my mind the image of a scholar, whom some of you knew, (for he was one of us,) and those who knew him well will say with me, he was as pure a spirit as ever tasted the dew of Castalia!— How would WALTER have delighted in this anniversary! He would have heard me! me, who am now left to speak of him only, and ask for him the tribute, the passing tribute of your grateful recollection! He would have heard me? It may be, that he now hears me, and is pleased with this tribute.

> ——— Manibus date lilia plenis;
> Purpureos spargam flores, animamque amici
> His saltem accumulem donis, et fungar inani
> Munere.†

It would be ungrateful to close this subject, without thinking of our Alma Mater! Scholars! let us never dishonour her. Let it always be ranked among the most urgent and honourable of our duties, to consult her interests, to watch over her renown, and to gain for her the patronage of the community. You, then, who are alive to the reputation of this antient university, lend her your effectual influence. Go to the rich, and tell them of the substantial glory of literary patronage! Tell them of the Maecenases of former days! Tell them, that the spirit of commerce has always been propitious to the arts and sciences! Show them the glories of the Medici of Florence; the republican renown of Holland, once studded with splendid universities, and fruitful in great men, fostered by the rich merchants of her cities! Show them that island of the blessed, where so many rich endowments of schools and of literary institutions have

* Cowper's Task, Book iii.

† Aen. Lib. VI. 893.

> Bring fragrant flowers, the whitest lilies bring,
> With all the purple beauties of the spring;
> On the dear youth, to please his shade below,
> This unavailing gift at least I may bestow!
>
> DRYDEN AND PITT.

mingled forever together the glories of commerce and of science! And, if this will not touch them, read the roll of the former benefactors of our university; of the Hollises and the Hancocks. These were merchants; and men too, whom posterity will never cease to honour; men, whom all the great and good spirits that have issued from this seat of learning will go and congratulate in heaven, as their benefactors!

> There sit the sainted sage, the bard divine;
> Rapt in celestial transport they;
> Yet hither oft a glance from high
> They send of tender sympathy
> To bless the place, where on their op'ning soul
> First the genuine ardour stole.*

But I forbear.—The cause of truth and learning is the cause of God, and it will not be deserted. With our Alma Mater, then, we leave our filial valediction; and in the words of Virgil, where he speaks of Berecynthia, the mother of the gods, we express our most ardent wishes that she may ever be

> Felix prole virûm.....
> Laeta deûm partu, centum complexa nepotes,
> Omnes caelicolas, omnes supera alta tenentes†. ‡
>
> AEN. LIB. VI. 783.

* Gray's Ode for Musick.

† Proud of her sons, she lifts her head on high;
Proud, as the mighty mother of the sky,
When, thro' the Phrygian towns, sublime in air
She rides triumphant in her golden car,
Crown'd with a nodding diadem of tow'rs,
And counts her offspring, the celestial pow'rs,
A shining train, who fill the blest abode,
A hundred sons, and every son a god! PITT.

‡ The present state of the University at Cambridge is such, we believe, as must be highly gratifying to its friends. Within a few years the terms of admission have been considerably raised, and a greater strictness of examination introduced. The number of books studied there is increased, and a spirit of application discovers itself, which promises much future excellence. The introduction of Dalzel's Collectanea Majora is a great step towards the improvement of Greek learning; and a Lord's day exercise will soon be required of the students in Grotius de veritate. The professorships of rhetorick and of natural history are noble instances of munificence; and there have been lately added adjunct professors in the two departments of chemistry and of anatomy. There is yet, however, much to be done, which calls for the patronage of the rich. A professorship of law, for which there is already a fund, might soon be put in operation with more ample endowments. The salaries of some of the officers require to be enlarged, to induce men of talents to fill these places for any length of time; and the number of tutors might be advantageously increased. But it is peculiarly desirable that a theological school should be established, where students for the ministry may be supported, and a professor or professors appointed, who shall devote themselves to the instruction of resident graduates in Biblical criticism, and in the qualifications for the pulpit.

It would be a very agreeable employment to some one acquainted with our academical annals, to collect and publish a history of this university, or an Athenae Harvardienses. In a few years it will become almost impracticable.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

FRENCH LITERATURE.

[We have been favoured by a friend with an extract of a letter from Paris, dated in May, of which the following is a translation.]

The attention of the literary world has been occupied for a month past by a poem of M. Chateaubriand's, entitled *the Martyrs*. Philosophers, devotees, and wits are all against him. The first accuse him of bigotry, the second of having detracted from the dignity of God, by placing him in conversation with Jupiter, and the last to have failed in his object, which was to prove, that the christian mythology offered much finer effects for paintings than the Pagan; and that he has produced a monster in literature, which is neither poem nor romance. As for me, who know nothing of the business, and who of course am not obliged to make any pretensions, I am very well pleased with this sort of hermaphrodite; it pleases my mind, and I am content with that pleasure, without seeking to destroy the illusion by those terrible *why's*.

Madame de Stael has discovered for us a German, altogether French; and that with reason, we love unreasonably: it is an extract from a work of thirty folios, by the Prince de Ligne. She has given us the quintessence of them; there is grace, delicacy, promptness, *de l'apropos*, reason, trifling, wit, in short every thing that to this moment we thought could only exist in *la gentille nation*, as Frederick the Great used to call us, and yet it is from a German.

I do not know whether Fame has carried to the new world the glory of Luce de Lencival, the author of Hector, a tragedy, praised to the skies, and for which they fought, and were crushed to pieces at the doors of the theatre, and which has produced the author a pension of six thousand livres. A good style, the most affecting adieus, a friendship worthy of Patroclus, the interest which a hero, sacrificing his military glory to the good of his country inspires, these have caused its success.

If from the illustrious Homer I may descend to the *barriere Pantin*, I will tell you that I went a day or two since to the canal of the Oure, which was projected three years ago. The part I saw is charming; a reservoir almost a mile in length, and wide in proportion, a Dutch bridge at the end, communicating with the canal, two rows of chesnuts planted on each side, and the hills of Romainville crowning the whole, makes a charming walk for the cockneys of Paris.

I shall not speak of the embellishments of the great city; they are infinite, pulling down and building up; it is a scene of edifices and ruins. In viewing their foundations on one side, their

triumphal arches, galleries, collonades, the louvre, I fancy myself at Rome in the age of Augustus.

I had forgot the greatest of all wonders; a man, named *Azais*, has shewn himself all of a sudden with work after work upon *compensations*, proving to us that there is as much good as evil in this lower world, and telling the emperour that, during so great a reign, we must necessarily become acquainted with truth, and that God had chosen him to reveal it. He has attempted to shew us all this in a publick course of lectures, in which no body could understand a word; and to this time we consider him as the greatest madman that could escape from Charenton or Bedlam. He has really the air of a prophet, and, as if he had been anointed from heaven, he is eloquent in the highest degree. No man can speak with more genius, nor be irrational with more charm.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

SOME ACCOUNT OF VENICE, AND THE SPLENDID ENTRANCE OF BUONAPARTE INTO THAT CITY, in December, 1807.

BY A BOSTONIAN.

[Continued from page 92.]

OBJECTS of a commercial nature having been the principal inducements to our visiting Venice, we were to attend to those objects first; and accordingly this afternoon we called upon some merchants to whom we had been recommended, and obtained from them such information and advice as related to our affairs.

Having been extremely pleased with the first impressions received on entering Venice, we determined to gratify our curiosity a little, and see as much of this celebrated city as the nature of our business and the short stay we proposed to make here would permit.

The first day of our arrival has been noticed; we attended to business, past hastily through several parts of the city, and betook ourselves early to rest. The fatigue of the preceding night, spent in our carriage, prepared us for repose, and no malignant spirit was commissioned to disturb it. This was Wednesday; and the remaining part of the week we devoted much of our time to visiting several places worthy of notice, examining with pleasure various objects in the fine arts, admiring the riches and elegance of the churches, and beholding altogether with wonder the tokens of splendour and magnificence to which this city and republick had formerly attained.

St. Mark's church is very curious for its Mosaick work; all those figures and ornaments of colours and shades which in other catholick churches are paintings, and which appear like paintings here, are done in Mosaick. They are beautifully, they

are wonderfully executed; and one can scarcely believe that the fine art of painting can be so easily counterfeited by artfully arranging different coloured stones. In an alcove on the outside of the church, St. Mark is thus painted or figured in Mosaick as a corpse, surrounded by a number of saints and angels, all larger than life, and executed in a style to please and astonish the most elevated expectations. The inside is decorated with numerous pieces equally beautiful and surprising. The roof of the church is thrown into several arches; which are seen from the floor, and are filled, as well as the walls, with saints and angels in groups, a great many scriptural and some historical pieces, all in Mosaick. It would seem to require ages to collect and assort a sufficient number of these small stones to form so many and such variety of figures, without calculating the labour and ingenuity in setting them. The altar and its ornaments are rich in marble and the precious metals; but much of these last was taken away and converted to more active purposes by the French army, when they first took possession of the city, and overturned the republick of Venice. Round the altar are four pillars of alabaster, which, although near a foot in diameter, are beautifully transparent.

As in all Catholick churches, so in St. Mark's they pretend to have some very extraordinary and sacred relicks, or objects of sacred regard, and religious veneration. The real body of St. Mark, the Evangelist, they tell you, is preserved in this church; and what is cherished with a still more holy adoration, a piece of the cross, upon which our saviour was crucified *. St. Mark is their tutelary saint, and has always been worshipped as the patron and protector of their city. One would suppose however, that they had offended him of late, for he seems to have withdrawn his patronage, and did not see fit to protect them against the general depredations of the conquerour of Italy.

The top of St. Mark's tower is a tedious elevation to attain, but from the balcony you enjoy a prospect which repays the toil of ascending. From hence we looked down on the city, could mark its shape and dimensions, its numerous canals and bridges, with the busy multitude of men which crowded the streets, had a view of the adjacent isles, a distant one of the Adriatick, and all the variegated charms which the fine bay and beautiful country on its borders could exhibit.

The Ducal palace is a noble edifice; those who see it must admire, but it is too large for me to examine with accuracy, and contains too many interesting objects to attempt to describe. The palace forms a square, and encloses a spacious court.

* On board of the vessel in which I afterwards embarked for Trieste, there was a devout sailor who had a small sliver from this piece of the holy cross. It was given him, he said, as a most precious don by one of the priests of St. Mark; he had it fixed in a little locket in the form of a cross, and as the weather looked boisterous when we were about to get under way, he took this from his chest and very piously hung it about his neck.

Round the court in niches are a great number of statues, some in bronze, some in marble. Two ranges of Corinthian columns form the front of the palace, and ornament each side of the square; the first range supports a gallery, and the second a cornice. From the court or square we ascended a flight of marble steps to the gallery, and from the gallery, through other superb stair-cases to the upper apartments, we visited successively, the council chamber, the chamber of audience, the grand assembly room, &c. They are all in the most magnificent style, and ornamented by some of the first paintings in the world. The history of the wars of the republick, and the whole story of Barbarossa are told on canvass, and expressed in almost living characters. The stair-cases are very noble; they are wide, with a fine arch over head, and these arches are filled with sculpture, bas relief, and stucco, richly gilt. Round the walls in the court we observed the lion's mouths, which, from being channels of secret information, were wont to keep the Venetians in so much awe. The rear of the palace is washed by the waters of a canal. As we passed up this canal in a gondola, we observed several back doors which opened into the water, so that a boat might sail into a large entry, and land upon a large stair-case leading to the apartments above.

On the other side of the canal is the state prison, a noble building also, and from this to the palace was a communication by a covered bridge forming a fine marble arch over the canal. It was through this passage that the prisoners were conducted to the palace for trial, or to receive from the senate their sentence.

In more prosperous times, when Venice maintained an elevated rank as a naval power, the arsenal here was considered the first in the world. Since her fall it has been neglected, many of the magazines have been stripped and plundered; but like Marius in Carthage, it is great in ruins. Lately a little more attention has been paid to it; the French government are putting the works in operation, and particularly upon the occasion of the expected visit from the Emperour, every exertion is making that it may appear respectable. It is a most spacious enclosure for naval architecture and a vast deposite and laboratory of naval and warlike implements. In it is contained the work-shops for manufacturing every thing necessary for the constructing and completely fitting a ship of war. Here they are built and equipped for sea; and a ship of the line is completed, from the laying of the keel, until she is ready to fight an enemy upon her own element, without going beyond these walls for a single manufactured article. The cables, the anchors, the sails, are all made here, and the workhouses for these several objects are upon the largest and most convenient plan. The cannon are cast in this arsenal, and the muskets and smaller weapons are also manufactured on the same busy stage. The walls enclose two basons of water, and upon the margins of

these are about fifty vast workhouses, in which the ships are built; they are separated from each other by a thick wall of masonry, and these walls support lofty roofs: thus a ship of war is begun and completed for launching, in a workshop, where the workmen are always under cover. Let any one figure to himself the size of a workshop, large enough to contain a ship of one hundred guns, and he will have some idea of the magnitude of objects in the arsenal of Venice. The ropewalk is a convenient and handsome building; it is upwards of fifteen hundred feet long, two stories high, and the roof is supported by a superb range of columns nearly four feet in diameter.

The cannon foundery is also a spacious and convenient building; and in it we saw some fine brass guns under the operating hands of the workmen, and in various stages of the process, from melting the metal to the last polishing of the piece.

In examining the manufactures of such ponderous objects, one has a flattering idea of the ingenuity of man. It occasions a pleasant emotion, something like the sublime, to observe with what ease they perform operations which seem to require a powerful force. The application of suitable machinery will effect any thing, and effect any thing with ease. A cannon of any size is here suspended and whirled round in a kind of lathe, and thus wrought and polished with great ease and dexterity.

After being sufficiently elevated by viewing things upon such a grand scale, the mind is agreeably diverted in being directed to a beautiful display of smaller objects. We were conducted to the armory, where several adjoining halls are filled with small arms, muskets, pistols, swords, &c. They are kept clean and polished, and so ingeniously arranged and displayed, that on entering each hall a different and beautiful coup d'oeil is presented. Here also we saw some fine pieces of sculpture, and some weapons and pieces of armour, curious for their antiquity, and several trophies of war, which the Venetians are still proud of telling were borne in triumph from their vanquished enemies.

Among the many churches which we visited, and which from their riches and elegance we viewed with pleasing admiration, there was one which we were principally induced to see on account of a fine piece of sculpture, among connoisseurs considered a master piece. It is a modern production, designed and executed by *Canova*, who is at present celebrated as the first sculptor of the age. It is a group, the principal figure of which is *Elmo*, a Venetian admiral, with ships, gallies, the sea, and a variety of naval emblems; the whole cut from one solid block of white marble, and executed certainly in a very beautiful style.

In this church there were also a great many very fine paintings; but what I saw with most surprise, though not with equal approbation, was a Grecian female statue in white marble, in a recumbent posture, and perfectly naked. The singularity of such a figure in a house of christian worship astonished me, and

I was shocked with what I thought the indecency of the thing. It might have merit for its true imitation of nature, but nature is not always to be exposed, and particularly in a place of publick devotion. But whatever may be its value in point of workmanship, I am sure I had not the countenance to examine it, especially before an assembly in the midst of their religious exercises, and therefore shall not pretend to judge of its merits in that particular.

The author of Elements of Criticism says, "no picture is proper for a church that has not religion for its subject." I agree with him. But certainly the Venetians were not under the influence of this sense of congruity, when they placed within these sacred walls the image of a naked woman.

Among the iniquitous institutions which the present government supports, and which, with a mutual regard, in their turn help to support the government, are the gaming houses. There is one in this city upon a very superb and costly plan. Here we see the vices, as it were, marshalled and organized. This noble building, with its lofty and elegant apartments, is worthy of a better application. You enter it through large folding doors from a court-yard, ascend a fine flight of marble steps, which mount to the second story and open into a spacious hall, the ceiling of which is vaulted, and ornamented with fine paintings. The hall is about fifty feet by sixty, and is surrounded by four or five lesser apartments, though all of them large and elegant. In two of these rooms are large tables with a wheel of fortune, and in the others are a great number of faro tables.

This house is crowded every evening with a mixed company. All of them come here with the laudable design of winning other people's money, but the most of them go home with the mortification of having lost their own.

The wheel of fortune tables are long, each being divided into two parts, making double tables, with the deceitful goddess in the middle. She is a silver figure, and stands on a silver ball in the center of an horizontal wheel; a boy sets at the middle of the table to whirl the wheel round, and a man at each end to receive and pay out the money that is bet. These tables are so thronged and crowded with anxious faces, that it is difficult for one to squeeze in near enough to lay down his money. The wheel turns, each one at the table puts down his cash, as much as he chooses to adventure. The wheel stops, and he sees if he is to take it up doubled, or if it is gone for ever. The man at the end of the table scrapes up all the money upon the unfortunate squares, and throws down what is due to the fortunate ones, and the wheel goes round again. Thus it is continually going. I could not but view this table as an epitome of the world; some win, more lose, and all are looking for the favours of fortune.

The rooms are opened, and the games begin early in the evening, and they continue gaming till twelve o'clock.

The utmost order and regularity prevail in these apartments; all is still and quiet; no disputes, or any high words are to be heard, for there is a French centinel in each corner of every room, and these fellows are excellent incentives to peaceable demeanour. Upon the same floor there is a coffee-room, where you find all sorts of refreshments, and excellent in their kind. A man stands in a little apartment at the head of the staircase, and receives your hat, sword, cane, cloak, &c. gives you a ticket, which you present when you come out, and receive your hat, &c. again. This house, as was hinted before, is licensed by government, and the manager pays twelve hundred and fifty livres (about one hundred and twenty-five dollars) a day for the privilege.

There is an astronomical clock in St. Mark's place, the dial plate of which presents on its plane, within the hour circle, a ring, representing the zodiack with the twelve signs in gilt bass relief, which perform the apparent rotation with those in the heavens. The moon is also shewn in her several phases on the same plane. On the hour circle is marked twenty four hours, as the Italians always reckon the time from one to twenty four, without making the division at twelve as we do. The hours are sounded by two gigantick figures in bronze, which alternately strike on a large bell between them.

The shops in Venice are many of them very rich, particularly in gold and jewelry, gold and silver lace, &c. These articles are manufactured here in great abundance, and in a very handsome taste. The shopkeepers pay great attention to, and have a peculiar knack in dressing up their shops and exposing their wares to the best advantage. This is particularly remarked in the cooks' shops, which are very numerous; the windows and counters are crowded with all kinds of wild game, poultry, and butcher's meat, and displayed in such inviting aspects as almost to create an appetite where there was no previous disposition to eat. The fruiterers also present you a delicious view of their stock; their fruit is finely arranged in rising rows round the shop, in form of an amphitheatre, and beautifully ornamented and interspersed with flowers, nosegays, and gilt paper.

The streets are generally clean and well paved, but they are so narrow, that, as Sterne says of those of Paris, you have not the satisfaction of knowing on which side you are walking. There are few, if any, more than six feet wide, and the most of them not more than four; they are of course so thronged, that it is often difficult to get along. However, if you are a little incommoded in this way, you are never in danger of being run over by horses or carriages, for there is not one of these animals, nor any thing on wheels in all Venice. The Venetian coach is a gondola; and every person of note keeps one or more of these, with gondoliers in livery.

Venice is seven miles in circumference, contains four hundred canals, and twice as many bridges. They reckon one

hundred and eighty seven thousand inhabitants. The city is supplied with fresh water from rain, which is preserved in cisterns. These cisterns are common in every square. All the water that falls into the square is conducted into a large reservoir, from which it is filtered through sand into a cistern in the middle, and from these cisterns it is drawn out very clear and pure. The principal houses have each a cistern in the yard upon the same plan. When these fail, water is brought from the main in boats.

The canals which cut the city into squares have no side walks or margins, but the water washes the walls of the houses, and flows into their doors. The houses are built absolutely in the water, and their foundations laid two or three feet under its surface. They are at a great expense in preparing this foundation, which is done first by driving piles; these are settled to a sufficient depth, and on them they begin with massy hewn stone.

There are very few spots within the compass of the city which were originally above the surface of the sea. An extensive bed of shoals, five or six miles from the main land, was a curious scite for building, yet upon such an unpromising foundation has risen one of the first cities in Europe. The idea of an asylum suggested the choice of this spot to the founders of Venice. It was like the instinct which we discover in some cautious birds, which build their nests under precipices, or hang them upon the extremity of a rotten branch of a tree.

Harassed by invading armies, or frequently plundered by banditti of robbers, some few families fled from the main, and erected huts upon these flats. The security they here enjoyed led others equally harassed to join them; probably the facility with which they supplied themselves with food from the surrounding element, attached them to the spot; the necessity of being acquainted with navigation, though at first upon a small scale, led them to commerce; commerce enriched them, and thus Venice rose from a mud bank to a proud and flourishing city, and from the shelter of a few fugitive fishermen, she became mistress of the sea.

TO BE CONTINUED.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

FRENCH CRITICISM.

AS the Columbiad has occupied some pages in the two last numbers of the Anthology, the following extracts from a French criticism on that work are translated from the *Magazin Encyclopedique* for May 1809. The first extract is made, because the writer touches on a passage criticised in the Anthology, but on different ground; the second, because some of the remarks will apply to others besides Mr. Barlow.

"The justness of the poet's ideas may also be disputed, when he represents Washington wishing to pass the Delaware on the ice to attack the English as prevented by the genius of the stream. A poet, reading the future, should perceive the invisible chain which unites human actions to the will of the gods. It is not natural then to represent the genius of the Delaware attached to the English, ignorant of the future destiny of his country, and opposing a cause so noble as that of her independence. Washington, though a christian, and fighting in a christian cause, cries to himself like Mezentius, *Dextra mihi deus ;* aided by Hesper, he surmounts every obstacle, and flies to victory."

"We shall only speak here of the *Postscriptum* where the author defends with warmth the liberty of introducing new words: Every fixed language, says he, is a dead language. This is an errour. A language is not dead till it is no longer in use among the people who first employed it. The Greek and Latin are still spoken in certain countries, but in so corrupt a manner and so different from that of the Greeks and Romans that they hardly resemble them. The ancient and classick manner of speaking being lost, these are called dead languages. But the Italian, the Spanish, the French are fixed, because their syntax is regulated: the French language is particularly so, since the days of Corneille and Pascal. In the course of the revolution, a crowd of new expressions sought to introduce themselves, but very few of them have survived the epoch of their birth.

"It is true that discoveries in the arts and sciences make it necessary to employ new words ; the intercourse and habits of society rarely exact it in a language in general use. If all authors had the privilege of introducing terms, it would be continually necessary to publish new dictionaries, and the number of these expressions would become infinite. Mr. Barlow sometimes employs in his poetry such words as he would not admit in his prose, which is always pure and correct. He perhaps abuses this license. A genius like his does not need such a little resource ; and the ironical advice of Voltaire,

Si vous ne pensez pas, créez de nouveaux mots.

is only applicable to mean and sterile talents."

LETTERS FROM HON. JOHN ADAMS AND MRS. ADAMS, TO THOMAS BRAND-HOLLIS, ESQ.

(Concluded from page 110.)

VI.

New-York, June 1, 1790.

MY DEAR FRIEND,

Nothing mortifies me more than the difficulty I find to maintain that correspondence with you which, when I left England, I thought would be some consolation to me for the loss of your conversation.

We proceed by degrees to introduce a little order into this country, and my publick duties require so much of my time, that I have little left for private friendship however dear to me.

By general Mansel, I send you a small packet which will give you some idea of our proceedings. The French seem to be very zealous to follow our exampie: I wish they may not too exactly copy our greatest errours, and suffer, in consequence of them, greater misfortunes than ourselves. They will find themselves under a necessity of treading back some of their too hasty steps, as we have done.

I am situated on the majestick banks of the Hudson, in comparison of which your Thames is but a rivulet, and surrounded with all the beauties and sublimities of nature. Never did I live in so delightful a spot. I would give,—what would I not give, to see you here?

Your library and your cabinets of elegant and costly curiosities, would be an addition to such a situation, which would in this country attract the attention of all. In Europe they are lost in the crowd. Come over and purchase a paradise here, and be the delight and admiration of a new world. Marry one of our fine girls, and leave a family to do honour to human nature when you can do it no longer in person.

Franklin is no more, and we have lately trembled for Washington. Thank God! he is recovered from a dangerous sickness, and is likely now to continue many years. His life is of vast importance to us.

Is there any probability of England's being able to carry off any of her distempers? I wish her happy and prosperous, but I wish she would adopt the old maxim, "live and let live."

Will there be a complete revolution in Europe both in religion and government? Where will the present passions and principles lead, and in what will they end? In more freedom and humanity, I am clear: but when? or how?

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASY[illegible]

HISTORY *of the* AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

(Continued from page 233.)

1778. IT was unfortunate for the Americans, that, for ſeveral years prior to the commencement of the war, the management of Indian affairs was chiefly committed to ſuperintendants, appointed and paid by the king of Great-Britain. Theſe, conſulting for their own intereſt, generally uſed their influence with the Indians in behalf of the mother-country. They induced them to believe that the king was their natural protector, againſt the encroachments of the Americans upon their land, who, if they ſucceeded in ſhaking off their allegiance to Great-Britain, would doubtleſs endeavour next to extirpate the natives of the ſoil. By ſuch repreſentations, and by the more powerful influence of preſents, which were dealt out very liberally, the ſavages were early engaged in ſupport of the Britiſh intereſt.

The ſanguinary diſpoſition of the American aborigines has rendered them at all times a formidable enemy. On the preſent occaſion, while the utmoſt exertions of the coloniſts were neceſſary on the ſea-coaſts, to repel the attacks of a powerful enemy, it was peculiarly dreadful to be expoſed to the incurſions of a ſavage foe, whoſe nations extended fifteen hundred miles along the frontier of the colonies. As the miniſters of Great-Britain had reſolved, in their attempts to enforce the ſubmiſſion of the Americans, to impreſs them with terror, as much as poſſible, nothing could be more favourable to their views, than the co-operation of the ſavages.

The Americans, at the commencement of the war, uſed their utmoſt endeavours to cheriſh a peaceable diſpoſition in their Indian neighbours. Commiſſioners were appointed to explain to them the nature of the diſpute, to cultivate their friendſhip by treaties, and to furniſh them with ſupplies of goods. The principal object held in view was, by demonſtrating to the Indians that they were in no degree intereſted in the quarrel, to diſſuade them from taking any part in it. The commiſſioners endeavoured to conciliate the friendſhip of the Indians, by every argument in their power; but their reaſoning was unſupported with preſents, and therefore had little or no effect. The non-importation agreement, which was the firſt ſtep taken by congreſs to oppoſe Great-Britain, put it out of their power to obtain thoſe ſupplies of goods, which alone could gratify the Indians. Great-Britain, on the other hand, had always acceſs to the principal Indian tribes, from Canada on the north, and the Floridas on the ſouth, and was abundantly able to ſupply their numerous wants. Hence a great majority of the Indians were hoſtile to the Americans, in almoſt every ſtage of the war.

We have already mentioned the ſeveral expeditions which were undertaken, by the inhabitants of the ſouthern ſtates, againſt the

, in 1776, by which the Cherokees were re-
retched ſituation. They were ſo much intimi-
that they ſued for peace in the moſt ſubmiſſive terms, ceded a conſiderable quantity of their lands to South-Carolina, and for ſome years after remained perfectly quiet. But thoſe Indians who reſided contiguous to the frontier of the middle and northern ſtates being in the vicinity of the Britiſh poſts, and tampered with by agents, who were plentifully ſupplied with goods from England, as preſents to the ſavage tribes, were engaged in almoſt continual acts of hoſtility againſt the Americans. A number of refugees, who had taken ſhelter among them, joined them in their different expeditions againſt the frontier-inhabitants; and, from their knowledge of the country, enabled even ſmall parties to do extenſive miſchief. The principal leaders of the ſavages, on theſe occaſions, were, col. John Butler, a Connecticut tory, and one Brandt, an half Indian by blood, and a man of the moſt ferocious and cruel diſpoſition.

Of the various ſcenes of havock and devaſtation, none was attended with ſuch tragical events, or with ſuch calamitous conſequences to the Americans, as the deſtruction of the new, but flouriſhing ſettlement of Wyoming, ſituated on the eaſtern branch of the Suſquehannah. The right of the ſoil was contended for both by Connecticut and Pennſylvania; and, the laws of neither being ſteadily enforced, no effectual meaſures had been taken to repreſs the hoſtile ſpirit of the Indians, or to provide for the ſecurity of the ſettlement, although the inhabitants had frequent and timely warnings of the danger to which they were expoſed, and although they had been much haraſſed, in the preceding year, by parties of Indians and refugees. The number of tories at Wyoming was conſiderable, and the two parties were actuated by ſentiments of the moſt bitter animoſity. The weakneſs and remote ſituation of the ſettlement induced vaſt numbers of tories to flock thither, as to a place of ſafety and common rendezvous. Twenty-ſeven of them, however, were at one time taken, and ſent to Hartford, in Connecticut, to be tried; but were afterwards releaſed. Theſe, and others, inſtigated by revenge againſt the Americans, by whom ſome of them had been baniſhed and deprived of their property, joined the Indians; and, in the beginning of July, attacked the Wyoming ſettlement, with their combined force, conſiſting of about 1100 men, of whom 900 were Indians. The whole party was commanded by col. John Butler. On the approach of the enemy, the American colonel, Zebulon Butler, who was in a ſmall fort which had been erected for the defence of the ſettlement, retired, with part of the garriſon, to the principal fort at Kingſton, called Forty-fort. The fort from which he had retreated was ſoon ſurrendered to the enemy, who immediately inveſted Forty-fort, and demanded the ſurrender of that alſo. Col. Butler, who commanded in that garriſon, ſent an imprudent meſſage to his hoſtile nameſake, propoſing a conference at a bridge without the fort. This being agreed to, he repaired to the place appointed, attended by the whole garriſon, a few invalids excepted.

When arrived at the appointed place, however, he found no perſon with whom to treat; but, unwilling to return without effecting

his object, he continued to advance till he w.
from the fort, where he had ſeen a flag, the holde.. o
tending to be afraid of treachery on his ſide, retired as he a..
Endeavouring to remove this ſuppoſed apprehenſion on the part of the enemy, he continued to advance, without perceiving his danger, till his party was completely ſurrounded by the enemy, and he was ſuddenly made ſenſible of his deluſion, by finding it attacked at once on every ſide. He and his men, notwithſtanding thoſe circumſtances of ſurprize and danger, which might have diſconcerted the moſt veteran troops, fought with reſolution and bravery, and kept up ſo continual and heavy a fire for three quarters of an hour, that they ſeemed to gain an evident ſuperiority. At this critical moment, ſome ſudden impulſe of fear, or premeditated treachery, in a ſoldier, induced him to cry out aloud, that the colonel had ordered a retreat. This at once determined the fate of the party. In the confuſion to which this gave riſe, the enemy broke in on all ſides, without much reſiſtance, and a dreadful ſlaughter enſued. No quarter was given. Of 417 men, who had marched out of the fort, 360 fell. Col. Zebulon Butler eſcaped, with the remainder, by flight.

The enemy again demanded the ſurrender of Forty-fort, which capitulated accordingly. The garriſon, conſiſting of about 30 men and 200 women, were permitted to croſs the Suſquehannah, and retreat through the woods to Northampton county. Moſt of the other inhabitants of the ſettlement had previouſly eſcaped, ſome through the woods to Northampton county, and others down the river to Northumberland. Peculiarly diſtreſſing was the ſituation of thoſe helpleſs women, and others, who became wanderers in the woods. They ſuffered much from a want of proviſions; and what, under ſuch circumſtances, was truly calamitous, ſeveral women were delivered of children alone, in the woods, at a great diſtance from any poſſibility of relief.

Many of the ſettlers at Wyoming had erected good dwelling-houſes and barns, and made conſiderable improvements. But all were now involved in one general ſcene of devaſtation. Fire and ſword alternately triumphed. Not only were numbers of the ſettlers inhumanly butchered; but the houſes, corn in the fields, furniture, and improvements of every kind, were as completely deſtroyed as their nature would admit. A few tory ſettlements only were ſuffered to eſcape. Theſe appeared as ſo many iſlands in the midſt of the ſurrounding ruin. The houſes, cattle, ſheep, and hogs were, for the moſt part, killed, or driven away by the enemy; but even here the ſavages exerciſed their wonted cruelty, by cutting out the tongues of a number of the cattle, or otherwiſe maiming them, and leaving them ſtill alive, to prolong their agonies. It was remarked that the refugees, who were aſſociated with the Indians in this expedition, were the moſt diſtinguiſhed of the two for their cruelty.

An expedition undertaken, in the courſe of the ſummer, by col. Clarke of Virginia, with a ſmall party of between two and three hundred men, from the ſpirit of enterprize with which it was conducted, is not unworthy of notice. The object in view was the reduction of the French ſettlements planted by the Canadians on the

the Illinois country; and at so vast a distance, obliged to traverse no less than about 1200 miles of that vated and uninhabited wilderness. Much of the mischief besides had fallen upon the southern and middle states, from the incursions of the Indians, had been attributed to the governor of those settlements, who, besides acting as agent for the British government, and paying large rewards for scalps, had been indefatigable in attempting to excite the Ohio and Mississipi Indians to undertake expeditions against the frontiers. This conduct was the motive to the present enterprize. The party, after a long course down the Monongahela, and a voyage on the Ohio, arrived at the great falls of the latter, within about sixty miles of its mouth, where they hid their boats, and bent their course by land to the northward. In this stage of the expedition, after consuming all the provision they had been able to carry on their backs, they endured a hard march of two days without any sustenance. They therefore, when arrived in this hungry state, about midnight, at the town of Kaskaskias, were unanimously determined to take it or perish in the attempt.

The town contained about 250 houses, and was sufficiently fortified to have withstood a much stronger enemy; but distance having forbidden all idea of danger among the inhabitants, of course superseded all precaution against surprise. Both town and fort were taken without noise or opposition, before the people were well awake; and the inhabitants were so effectually secured, that not a person escaped to alarm the neighbouring settlements. The governor, Philip Rocheblave, was sent to Virginia, with all the written instructions he had received from Quebec, Detroit, and Michillimackinack, for setting on the Indians, and paying them great rewards for the scalps of the Americans.—The inhabitants were required to take an oath of allegiance to the united states, and the fort became the head quarters of the victors.

A small detachment pushed forward from this place on horseback, and surprised and took with as little difficulty three other French towns, lying from fifteen to about seventy miles further up the Mississippi. The inhabitants in them and the neighbouring country made no difficulty of transferring their allegiance, which they would reasonably conclude could not be refused with safety, as they might naturally imagine the enemy was in force, being in the heart of the country: the dangerous situation of this small corps, in the inner part of the Indian territory, at the back of some of the most cruel and hostile tribes, in the track of many others, and more or less in the way of all, was converted to peculiar advantage, by the extraordinary activity and unwearied spirit of the commander. He directed and timed his attacks with such judgment, and executed them with such silence and dispatch, that the Indians found their own mode of war effectually turned upon them. Surprised in their inmost retreats, and most sequestered receptacles, at those times and seasons, when they were scarcely less disposed for action, than unprepared for defence, they experienced in their own wigwams and families, that unexpected slaughter and destruction, which they had so frequently carried home to others. Upon this they grew cautious

and timid; and the continual danger to which expoſed, damped the ardour of their warriors peditions.

Soon after the deſtruction of the Wyoming ſettlements, an expedition was undertaken againſt the Indians, by col. Butler of the Pennſylvania troops. He and his party having gained the head of the Dela- *Oct.* 1. ware, marched down the river for two days, and then ſtruck acroſs the country to the Suſquehannah. They totally burned or deſtroyed the Indian villages, both in that quarter and the other ſettlements, but the inhabitants eſcaped. The deſtruction was extended for ſeveral miles on both ſides of the Suſquehannah. The difficulties which col. Butler's men encountered in this expedition, could not be undergone but by men who poſſeſſed a large ſhare of hardineſs, both of body and mind. They were obliged to carry their proviſions on their backs, and thus loaded, frequently to wade through creeks and rivers. After the toil of a hard march, they were obliged to endure chilly nights and heavy rains, without even the means of keeping their arms dry. They completed their buſineſs in ſixteen days.

In this manner, the ſavage part of the war was carried on in America. Waſte and ſometimes cruelty were inflicted and retorted, with infinite variety of ſcenes of horror and diſguſt. The ſelfiſh paſſions of human nature, unreſtrained by ſocial ties, broke over all bounds of decency or humanity. The American refugees, who had fled to the weſtern wilderneſs, indulged their paſſion for rapine, by aſſuming the colour and dreſs of Indians. At other times, they acted as guides, and conducted theſe mercileſs ravagers into ſuch ſettlements, as afforded the moſt valuable booty, and the faireſt proſpect of eſcape. The ſavages, encouraged by Britiſh preſents and agents, and led on by American refugees well acquainted with the country, and who cloaked the moſt conſummate villainy under the ſpecious name of loyalty, extended their depredations and murders far and near.

A particular detail of the devaſtation of property—of the diſtreſs of great numbers, who eſcaped only by fleeing to the woods, where they ſubſiſted without covering, on the ſpontaneous productions of the earth—and of the barbarous murders which were committed on perſons of every age and ſex, would be ſufficient to freeze every breaſt with horror.

A few detached events, which could not well be introduced before, ſhall conclude our narrative of this campaign.

In the month of February, capt. James Willing arrived at the Natches, a Britiſh ſettlement in Weſt-Florida, at the head of a few men, from Fort-Pitt. The inhabitants entered into an agreement, by which they promiſed to obſerve a ſtrict neutrality, it being engaged, at the ſame time, that they ſhould remain unmoleſted, both in their perſons and property.

In the beginning of March, the Randolph, an American frigate of 36 guns and 305 men, ſailed from Charleſton, on a cruiſe, and having fallen in with the Yarmouth of 64 guns, engaged her in the night. In a quarter of an hour the Randolph blew up; and all the men periſhed, except four, who got upon a piece of her wreck, and ſub-

on rain-water, which they ſucked from a piece of [illegible] the 5th day, they were fortunate enough to be diſcovered by capt. Vincent of the Yarmouth, who ſuſpended the chaſe of his ſhip then in view, for the purpoſe of taking them on board. Capt. Biddle, who periſhed on board the Randolph, being a brave officer, in the prime of life, was much lamented.

Major Talbot, in the night of the 29th of October, took the Britiſh ſchoner Pigot, of eight twelve pounders, as ſhe lay on the eaſtern ſide of Rhode-Iſland. This atchievment was performed by the major, with a number of troops, on board a ſmall veſſel. Congreſs, as a reward of his bravery and enterprize, preſented him with a commiſſion of lieutenant-colonel.

Experience having pointed out ſundry errors, in the councils and military eſtabliſhment of the Americans, in the preceding years of the war, ſome of theſe were reformed in the year 1778. From the wretched proviſion which had been made for the ſupport of the officers of the army, many of them had been conſtrained to reſign, to the great injury of the ſervice. A more liberal policy, added to the ſtrenuous, but diſintereſted recommendations of the commander in chief, induced congreſs to reſolve, that the officers of the army ſhould receive half-pay, for the term of ſeven years after the expiration of their ſervice. This was afterwards extended to the end of their lives. And, finally, they were permitted to commute this for five years full pay. Reſignations were afterwards leſs frequent; and the ſtates reaped the benefit of experienced officers continuing in ſervice till the end of the war.—A more regular ſyſtem of diſcipline was introduced into the army, by the induſtry and judicious regulations of Baron de Steuben, an excellent diſciplinarian, who had ſerved, for many years, under the king of Pruſſia.—Dr. Ruſh was inſtrumental in effecting ſome important reforms in the the regulations of the military hoſpitals.—Sundry regulations which had been made for limiting the prices of commodities, being found both impracticable and injurious, were aboliſhed. And, in fine, America, profiting by experience, and leagued with a powerful nation, left the miniſters of Great-Britain, had they reaſoned on the ſubject, little now to hope from a proſecution of the war.

(To be continued.)

ACCOUNT *of the* CLIMATE *and* DISEASES *of the* STATE *of* DELAWARE; *In a* LETTER *from* DR. TILTON *of* DOVER, *to* DR. CURRIE *of* PHILADELPHIA.

Dover 20, *April*, 1791.

SIR,

IMMEDIATELY after writing my former letter to you, I was ſeized with an indiſpoſition that totally diſqualified me for writing again ſo ſoon as I intended; and even at this time I cannot attempt more than a very general account of our diſeaſes.

The medical hiſtory of Delaware, I apprehend, circumſtance, that a greater variety of ſoil and climate hended within a ſmaller extent of territory than can be found where elſe. Within the narrow limits of a hundred miles in length, upon the Delaware river, and the mean diſtance of about twenty-four miles back into the country, we have all the varieties of ſoil and climate to be found in the middle ſtates of America. That diſtrict of Delaware, which lies above Chriſtiana creek, is perfectly mountainous both in ſoil and climate; and theſe mountains extend their influence throughout New-Caſtle county, ſo as to give a diſtinction of climate for every ten miles you deſcend down the Delaware. From Apoquinimink creek to the lower end of the ſtate, we have a level country, interſected at regular diſtances of from five to ten miles, with creeks of tide water, bordered with extenſive marſhes; and theſe creeks head in immenſe ſwamps, on the weſtern border of the ſtate, from whence the water falls, equivocally, either into the Delaware or the Cheſapeake. Throughout this low and flat diſtrict, marſh miaſmata, and other noxious exhalations, muſt be a plentiful ſource of diſeaſes. Cape Henlopen, nevertheleſs, enjoys all the advantages of a perfectly inſular ſituation; and all the river ſhore, as well as the ſea coaſt, find great relief from the ſea-breeze; ſo that it is only in the inland part of the country, where heat and ſtagnation concur to exalt the noxious exhalations of our low grounds, that our ſtate can truly be ſaid to be ſickly.

From this general deſcription of our ſtate, the following account of the health and diſeaſes of the inhabitants will be readily credited. The hills of Brandywine and Chriſtiana furniſh as healthful a diſtrict of country as any in America. The Borough of Wilmington, for health, beauty, and accommodation, is ſuperior to any town I have ſeen, between the borders of New-England and the ſouthern boundary of Virginia; and I have examined all the principal towns within thoſe limits, in a comparative point of view. George-Town, on the Potowmac, the intended federal reſidence, is more analogous to Wilmington than any other, but manifeſtly the inferior of the two.

The town of New-Caſtle, though ſurrounded by marſhy ſprouts from the Delaware, is nevertheleſs rendered a healthful reſidence, by the refreſhing breezes from the river, that flow in upon the town as regularly as the tide. All the county of New-Caſtle, and eſpecially above Apoquinimink, is a delightful diſtrict of country, though the nearer the river the more healthful.

Kent, though bleſſed with the moſt fertile ſoil, is the moſt ſickly of the three counties of Delaware. Dover, the county town, and metropolis of the ſtate, is truly unhealthful. Situated eight miles within land, and ſhut out from all water communication by high timbered woods, the air of this diſtrict, in the hot ſeaſon of the year, ſuffers exceedingly from ſtagnation.

Suſſex county, though as flat and marſhy as Kent, is fanned on one ſide from the Delaware, and on another from the Atlantic, and the woods being cut down in leſs proportion, than in the other counties, the abundance of foreſt trees pour forth a refreſhment to the air, that contributes, with the ſea-breezes, to the health of the inhabitants.

ty town of Suſſex, ſtands upon the promontory of open," that ſtretches in between the Delaware and the At- This town is conſtantly fanned from the ocean, and is as healthful as Bermudas. This place has furniſhed the longeſt lived inhabitants of our ſtate. Here are the greateſt proportion of old people, and the moſt numerous ſwarms of children. Lewes is much reſorted to by convaleſcents from the inland country and neighbouring ſtates, and deſerves to be ſtill more frequented. Sickly boys, and others with ſwelled ſpleens and obſtructed viſcera, from repeated and obſtinate fevers, are quickly reſtored to health, barely by a reſidence at Lewes. All manner of nervous weakneſs is relieved by the ſalutary air of our cape; but aſthmatic and hectic patients ſhould be cautious how they truſt themſelves there.

Frequent and ſudden changes in the ſenſible qualities of our atmoſphere furniſh another fertile ſource of diſeaſes. Theſe changes depend ſolely on the courſe of the winds, and happen as often as the winds change. The wind blowing from between north and eaſt, is generally cold and moiſt, except from June until September, when it is generally dry. From eaſt to ſouth comes our ſea-breeze, and is more ſalutary than any other. From ſouth to weſt, the winds are hot, all the year round; and conſtitute our moſt noxious blaſts. From weſt to north, the wind is at all ſeaſons cold, dry in winter, and accompanied with guſts in ſummer.

The moſt healthful ſeaſon of our year is from the beginning of May, until the beginning of Auguſt. During this period, the weather is leſs variable than at other ſeaſons; and I have conceived, that the rapid progreſs of vegetation, during the ſpring, contributes not a little to render the air ſalubrious.

Immediately after harveſt, our endemical ſickneſs begins. It generally increaſes throughout the month of Auguſt, and rages at its height during September.

Bilious, intermitting, and remitting fevers, differing only in degree and modification, conſtitute the principal group of our annual fall diſeaſes. Dyſenteries ſometimes appear, but not oftener than in other countries; and it is remarkable, that diſeaſes of this kind oftener afflict the higher diſtricts of New-Caſtle, than the flat counties of Kent and Suſſex. The Cholera Morbus is a frequent diſeaſe in the hot months; and the Cholera Infantum, as deſcribed by Dr. Ruſh, has of late years made great devaſtation among our children, more eſpecially in the town of Dover. A ſwelled ſpleen and viſceral obſtructions, are no uncommon conſequence of fevers. Scorbutic and other putrid affections often make their appearance in unhealthful ſituations: And if our remitting fevers of the fall are neglected or ill treated, they will often degenerate into the moſt perfect typhus.

With the commencement of froſt in October, the fall ſickneſs abates in quantity, but wears very much the ſame type for a month or ſix weeks longer. The bilious and remitting fevers of the fall ſeem to lay the foundation of our winter fevers: for it is very remarkable, that thoſe who have been the moſt haraſſed by the endemical fall ſickneſs, are the moſt liable to the ſynochous and typhous

fever of the winter. As to a ſimply inflammatory fev
local inflammation is ſolely to be regarded, it is with us a r.
currence indeed.

The proportion of ſickneſs among our inhabitants is as various as the ſoil and climate. In the highlands of New-Caſtle, a man thinks himſelf quite unfortunate to be overtaken by an epidemic ſickneſs, even in the fall of the year; whereas an inhabitant of the inland diſtricts of Kent and Suſſex thinks himſelf lucky to eſcape a year or two together.

In Wilmington and Lewes, the countenance of the inhabitants never flag, but at all ſeaſons witneſs the moſt vigorous health.

In Dover, every inhabitant ſuffers a diminution of health, during the fall ſeaſon, and exhibits a more pale and languid face than at other times.

A prevalency of ſouth-weſt winds above all things increaſes and exalts our fall ſickneſs; but when the eaſterly winds prevail, during the ſickly ſeaſon, or frequent ſhowers happen from the north-weſt, they afford us great relief. Thoſe habitations that border on the water, and are openly expoſed to the ſea-breeze, are every where healthy.

Bombayhook, though ſurrounded by immenſe marſhes, is nevertheleſs, next to Lewes, diſtinguiſhed for the health of its inhabitants. Theſe ſeveral facts taken together, lead us to conjecture, that marſh miaſmata will not altogether account for our fall ſickneſs, nor the peculiar noxious influence of our ſouth-weſt winds, which injure us as manifeſtly by the ſudden thaws they occaſion in winter, as by their parching heat in ſummer.

It muſt be confeſſed, a great change has taken place in the diſeaſes of this part of the country, as well of the hot as cold ſeaſon of the year. I can remember when regular intermittents chiefly abounded in the ſummer and fall, and ſimply inflammatory fevers in the winter. Theſe now give place to ſevere bilious vomitings, and continued or remitting fevers in the fall, and ſynochous and typhous fevers in the winter. Formerly we uſed tartar emetic more freely and to greater advantage than we can at preſent. Then, too, the antiphlogiſtic method of treating fevers ſerved us well enough; now we have very little uſe for the lancet.

Our bilious vomitings are beſt treated by waſhing out the ſtomach with warm demulcent liquors, then quieting all diſturbance with anodynes, and finiſhing the cure with aromatics, bark, and other tonic medicines.

Our bilious and remitting fevers require evacuations more or leſs, have their exacerbations much relieved by anodynes, and finally yield to the bark.

In the cholera infantum every irritating medicine taken into the ſtomach is injurious. To waſh out the ſtomach with chamomile tea and chicken water, is all the evacuation that can be attempted with advantage. Small doſes of laudanum in the day, and full doſes at night, become then the ſovereign remedy. Bark and camphor are moſt advantageouſly applied to the ſkin: but nothing more than a palliative cure can be expected, without removing the pa-

e i. ious air that firſt gave the bilious impreſſion. For ..e, if not killed outright, the patient muſt languiſh under the epeated occurrence of the diſorder, with ſuch reſpites now and then as may be barely termed remiſſions, until the cold weather has made an entire change in the atmoſphere. In this caſe therefore, we have recourſe to the bay ſhore; and it is ſurpriſing the effects of ſnuffing the ſea breeze for a ſingle day. At Lewes, I never heard of the cholera infantum; while at Dover, it has, for years paſt, ſwept off our children in a manner that is ſcarcely credible elſewhere. This puts the efficacy of the ſ a air in a ſtrong point of view; and I mention it that others may profit by our experience and obſervation.

The fever moſt prevalent with us in winter, is preciſely that deſcribed by Dr. Cullen, under the name of Synochus. Its firſt attack is generally attended with aching pains all over, and very often with conſiderable pulmonic affections. Another local affection that often attends it is the enteritis. The ſymptoms that give us the earlieſt and ſureſt warning of its true type, are headach and ſickneſs at the ſtomach. Gentle evacuations of the ſtomach and bowels are proper in the beginning; but antimonials are to be uſed with caution. For the removal of local affections, we rely chiefly upon bliſters. The lancet is never uſed but upon extraordinary and preſſing occaſions. Languor and weakneſs ſoon come on, and we watch the firſt opportunity of giving the bark. The moſt free and liberal uſe of this important remedy is, at any time or ſtage of the diſorder, warranted by a dry tongue. Opium, wine, camphor, volatiles, and all manner of ſtimulants are often employed in the courſe of the diſorder, as neceſſary auxiliaries of the bark. As ſoon as the typhous form is correctly marked, the moſt cordial and nouriſhing diet is always uſed.

Numerous obſervations perſuade us, that our typhous fevers are more contagious than is generally apprehended. It is remarkable that more or leſs of a family will be affected in ſucceſſion, when a fever of this ſort is introduced among them, according to the care obſerved in cleanlineſs and a free ventilation. The typhus, therefore, is peculiarly noxious to negro families. It is ſo common to trace infection from one perſon to another, that the requiſite care to guard the family and viſiting friends from contagion, is among the earlieſt and moſt importunate inſtructions of our phyſicians to their patients.

The ſwelling of the ſpleen, and other viſceral obſtructions, are beſt relieved by aperient gumous medicines, taken at the ſame time with bitters, aromatics, and tonics, and continued for a length of time. But a patient once impreſſed with this kind of habit, is only to be ſecured from repeated relapſes, by a change of climate.

We have incidental diſorders in common with other people. But I ſuppoſe thoſe only which are ſpecial and peculiar to our ſtate to be to your purpoſe. Theſe I have endeavoured to deſcribe in a curſory way, as well as my time and ſtate of health will permit.

You will perceive at firſt ſight, that my letter is a haſty performance, delivered only in general terms, and in that form and order in which the ſubject moſt naturally preſented itſelf to my mind. But

although neither the arrangement, language, or dreſs of courſe ſhould be of any uſe to you, the facts may be relied upon.

I am, ſir,
with great reſpect,
your moſt obedient ſervant,
JAMES TILTON.

Dr. Currie.

MANNERS *and* CUSTOMS *of the* PERSIANS.

[*From Francklin's Tour from Bengal to Perſia.*]

THE Perſians, with reſpect to outward behaviour, are certainly the Pariſians of the eaſt. Whilſt a rude and inſolent demeanour peculiarly marks the character of the Turkiſh nation towards foreigners and chriſtians, the behaviour of the Perſians would, on the contrary, do honour to the moſt civilized nations; they are kind, courteous, civil, and obliging to all ſtrangers, without being guided by thoſe religious prejudices ſo very prevalent in every other Mahomedan nation; they are fond of enquiring after the manners and cuſtoms of Europe; and, in return, very readily afford any information in reſpect to their own country. The practice of hoſpitality is with them ſo grand a point, that a man thinks himſelf highly honoured if you will enter his houſe and partake of what the family affords; whereas going out of a houſe, without ſmoking a caleàn, or taking any other refreſhment, is deemed, in Perſia, a high affront; they ſay that every meal a ſtranger partakes with them brings a bleſſing upon the houſe: to account for this, we muſt underſtand it as a pledge of faith and protection, when we conſider that the continual wars in which this country has been involved, with very little ceſſation, ſince the extinction of the Sefi family, have greatly tended to an univerſal depravity of diſpoſition, and a perpetual inclination to acts of hoſtility. This has leſſened that ſoftneſs and urbanity of manners for which this nation has been at all former times ſo famous; and has, at the ſame time, too much extinguiſhed all ſentiments of honour and humanity amongſt thoſe of higher rank.

The Perſians, in their converſation, aim much at elegance, and are perpetually repeating verſes and paſſages from the works of their moſt favourite poets, Hafiz, Sadi, and Jami; a practice univerſally prevalent from the higheſt to the loweſt; becauſe thoſe who have not the advantages of reading and writing, or the other benefits ariſing from education, by the help of their memories, which are very retentive, and what they learn by heart, are always ready to bear their part in converſation. They alſo delight much in jokes and quaint expreſſions, and are fond of playing upon each other; which they ſometimes do with great elegance and irony. There is one thing much to be admired in their converſation, which is the ſtrict

n they always pay to the perſon ſpeaking, whom they never rupt on any account. They are in general a perſonable, and in many reſpects, a handſome people; their complections, ſaving thoſe who are expoſed to the inclemencies of the weather, are as fair as Europeans.

The women at Shirauz have at all times been celebrated over thoſe of other parts of Perſia for their beauty, and not without reaſon. Of thoſe whom I had the fortune to ſee during my reſidence, and who were moſtly relations and friends of the family I lived in, many were tall and well ſhaped; but their bright and ſparkling eyes was a very ſtriking beauty: this, however, is in a great meaſure owing to art, as they rub their eye-brows and eye lids with the black powder of antimony (called ſurma,) which adds an incomparable brilliancy to their natural luſtre. The large black eye is in moſt eſtimation among the Perſians, and this is the moſt common at Shirauz. As the women in Mahomedan countries are, down to the meaneſt, covered with a veil from head to foot, a ſight is never to be obtained of them in the ſtreet; but from my ſituation, I have ſeen many of them within doors, as when any came to viſit the family where I lived, which many did, directed by their curioſity to ſee an European. Underſtanding I belonged to the houſe, they made no ſcruples of pulling off their veils, and converſing with great inquiſitiveneſs and familiarity, which ſeemed much gratified by my ready compliance with their requeſts, in informing them of European cuſtoms and manners, and never failed to procure me thanks, with the additional character of a good natured *Feringy* (the appellation by which all Europeans are diſtinguiſhed). The women in Perſia, as in all Mahomedan nations, after marriage, are very little better than ſlaves to their huſbands. Thoſe mild and familiar endearments which grace the ſocial board of an European, and which, at the ſame time they afford a mutual ſatisfaction to either ſex, tend alſo to refine and poliſh manners, are totally unknown in Mahomedan countries. The huſband, of a ſuſpicious temper, and chained down by an obſtinate and perſevering etiquette, thinks himſelf affronted even by the enquiry of a friend after the health of his wife!

Some ACCOUNT *of the* INHABITANTS *of* KAMTSCHATKA.

[*Extracted from the Journal of M. de Leſſeps, who ſailed as interpreter with the count de la Perouſe.*]

THE people of Kamtſchatka are of a mild and hoſpitable diſpoſition; they are neither thieves nor robbers; and, indeed, they poſſeſs ſo little cunning, that they may eaſily be deceived, by taking advantage of their fondneſs for ſtrong liquors. They live in almoſt perfect harmony with each other; and to this they are probably induced on account of the ſmallneſs of their number. This union leads them to mutual aſſiſtance in their labours; which is a great proof of their deſire

to oblige, if we conſider their natural and uncommon lazine. theſe people an active life would be inſupportable; and their gre. happineſs, next to that of getting drunk, is to enjoy the luxury of indolence; and ſo powerful is this diſpoſition, that they abſolutely neglect the means of providing the neceſſaries of life. In winter, whole families are ſometimes ſeen reduced to the extremity of want, becauſe they did not give themſelves the trouble, in ſummer, to lay up a proviſion of fiſh, which is their principal ſource of nouriſhment. They are equally careleſs of their perſons and their habitations; and they may be reproached with being exceedingly dirty. Notwithſtanding this, and many other natural faults, it is to be regretted that their number is inconſiderable; for, from what M. de Leſſeps ſaw, and from what was confirmed to him by ſeveral people, ſentiments of honour and humanity muſt be ſearched for among the real Kamtſchadales; they have not yet bartered their rude virtues for the poliſhed vices of the Europeans ſent thither to civiliſe them.

The fair ſex, in all ages, have been particularly fond of gaiety and pleaſure; and this paſſion, probably, is confined to no country or climate; it appears under the ſcorching beams of the tropical ſun, and is unchecked by the cold atmoſphere of the northern regions. Thoſe of Bolcheretſk, once the capital of Kamtſchatka, according to M. de Leſſep's account, are not deficient in this reſpect.

"With regard to the women of Bolcheretſk," ſays he, "who came to our aſſemblies, and who, for the moſt part, were of a mixed breed, or born of Ruſſian parents, I obſerved that their faces in geral were not diſagreeable. I even ſaw ſome who might be accounted pretty; but the freſhneſs of their complexions does not continue long; and it is doubtleſs their bringing forth children, or the ſevere labour to which they are ſubjected, that makes them thus wither almoſt in the flower of their age. They are of a cheerful diſpoſition, and extremely lively, perhaps a little at the expence of decency; they ſeek, of their own accord, to amuſe thoſe among whom they are, by every expedient that mirth and joy can ſuggeſt. They are fond of ſinging, and the ſound of their voice is ſoft, and far from being diſpleaſing; it is only to be wiſhed that their muſic had not ſo great a reſemblance to the climate, or that it approached nearer to ours. They ſpeak both the Ruſſian and Kamtſchadale languages; but they all preſerve the accent of the latter. I did not expect to ſee the Poliſh dances here, and ſtill leſs, country dances in the Engliſh taſte. Who would believe that the ladies here had any idea of the minuet? Whether it was that my being at ſea for twenty-ſix months had rendered me leſs difficult to be pleaſed, or that the remembrance of former ſcenes, which this ſpectacle revived, had faſcinated my eyes, I thought theſe dances executed with more preciſion and grace than I could have imagined. The dancers of whom I ſpeak, carry their vanity ſo far as to diſdain the ſongs and dances of the Kamtſchadales. In order to finiſh my obſervations upon theſe balls, I muſt ſay, that the women are not negligent in their dreſs; they ornament themſelves with the moſt elegant articles which they poſſeſs, or conſider as of the greateſt value. Theſe dreſſes of ceremony conſiſt principally of ſilk; and muſt coſt very dear. I ſhall here add a remark

had an opportunity of making, both in these assemblies and those of the Kamtschadales, at which I was afterwards present: it is, that the greater part of the husbands, whether Russians or natives, do not appear to be jealous; they readily shut their eyes on the conduct of their wives, and are very indifferent on this point."

On TACITURNITY.

MUCH has been said by the ancients in praise of taciturnity; but it is not greatly admired by the moderns. And, indeed, when we consider that it is often the effect of dulness and pride, it may admit of some doubt whether it be worthy of praise.

There are various motives for taciturnity. Some persons are afraid of exposing themselves to danger, and others to contempt. It is certain that a man who communicates all his thoughts without reserve, is very likely to say something which he may wish in vain to retract. A word once uttered can never be recalled; 'and many a one,' says an ancient, 'has repented of having spoken, but scarcely one of having kept silence.'

But this regard for safety may certainly be carried too far. The extreme selfishness from which reserve often proceeds, is by no means amiable. Caution is certainly necessary in what we utter, but it does not follow that the same caution should deter us from uttering at all. Neither our words nor our affairs usually make that impression on others which our vanity is apt to conceive. If we are of such consequence as that our companions may find their interest in studying every part of our conversation and action, it will then become necessary to be oracular or silent. Or if we are so unfortunate as to have chosen our companions among the base and treacherous, it will then become necessary to keep our mouths as it were with a bridle. But in this case, the best advice that can be given is, that we abandon the company in which we cannot confide. In general, we may conclude, that there is not so much danger in speaking, if we take care to regulate our words by prudence, as to justify a singular taciturnity.

Another cause of taciturnity is an excessive diffidence; and this quality is often found in men of the most amiable tempers and dispositions. Their feelings are so delicate, and their modesty so invincible, that though they are often the best qualified to make a good appearance in conversation, they give up all pretensions to excellence, and content themselves with becoming hearers only.

This weakness, though excuseable in itself, is yet injurious to society, as it prevents the communication of many ideas and opinions which are calculated to improve mankind, and to sweeten the pleasures of friendly association.

But pride is a cause of taciturnity, no less often than diffidence. There are many persons who think the company which they keep, for the sake of ceremony or in compliance with form, not worthy the

honour of hearing the communication of their ſapient cogitat. They obſerve alſo that ſilence gives the appearance of wiſdom; and they are conſcious that they poſſeſs no method of acquiring the character of wiſdom ſo eaſily as by ſilence. This requires no exertion of ingenuity or invention, but is often the natural reſult of ſullen pride and ſubtle artifice.

Pride is ſo often united with ill nature, that they may, I believe, be called inſeparable companions; and it is undoubtedly true, that taciturnity is frequently cauſed by ill nature; but let not moroſeneſs and ſullenneſs, expreſſed by a haughty and contemptuous ſilence, paſs for wiſdom, virtue, and erudition.

Stupidity is among the principal cauſes of taciturnity. If a ſubject ariſes which requires knowledge and elegance in its diſcuſſion, many perſons are condemned to an involuntary ſilence. And indeed taciturnity in this caſe, is the only quality which can appear to advantage; for, to prate on ſubjects which we do not underſtand, evinces at once our vanity and our ignorance. A modeſt attempt however, to take a part in ſuch converſation, cannot but deſerve praiſe and encouragement. Queſtions may be aſked, with great advantage to the enquirer, and without the leaſt violation of decorum.

Upon the whole, I think it appears that taciturnity is by no means amiable or juſtifiable, except in caſes of particular importance, in which judgment and common ſenſe muſt ever dictate the proper behaviour.

In early youth, indeed, ſilence is not only becoming, but the means of deriving improvement. He who is always talking in the company of his elders, fills up that time with his own ſuperficial remarks, which might otherwiſe be employed in liſtening to the leſſons of wiſdom. In general, it may be preſcribed as a rule, that we ought not to communicate our ideas, till we have reaſon to entertain a modeſt confidence that they are worthy of acceptance. We ſhould imitate the birds, who do not attempt to fly, or leave the ſecurity of the neſt, till their wings are covered with plumage, and their muſcles furniſhed with a due degree of vigour.

Influence *of* Moral Sentiment *in Producing* Personal Beauty.

In the countenance there are but two requiſites to perfect beauty, which are wholly produced by external cauſes, colour and proportion: and it will appear, that, even in common eſtimation, theſe are not the chief, but that though there may be beauty without them, yet there cannot be beauty without ſomething more.

The fineſt features ranged in the moſt exact ſymmetry, heightened by the moſt blooming complexion, muſt be animated before they can ſtrike; and when they are animated, will generally excite the ſame paſſions which they expreſs. If they are fixed in the dead calm of inſenſibility, they will be examined without emotion; and if they do

expreſs kindneſs, they will be beheld without love. Looks of contempt, diſdain, or malevolence, will be reflected, as from a mirror, by every countenance on which they are turned; and if a wanton aſpect excites deſire, it is but like that of a ſavage for his prey, which cannot be gratified without the deſtruction of its object.

Among particular graces, the dimple has always been allowed the pre-eminence, and the reaſon is evident; dimples are produced by a ſmile, and a ſmile is an expreſſion of complacency; ſo the contraction of the brows into a frown, as it is an indication of a contrary temper, has always been deemed a capital defect.

The lover is generally at a loſs to define the beauty by which his paſſion was ſuddenly and irreſiſtibly determined to a particular object; but this could never happen, if it depended upon any known rule of proportion, upon the ſhape or diſpoſition of the features, or the colour of the ſkin: he tells you that it is ſomething which he cannot fully expreſs, ſomething not fixed in any part, but diffuſed over the whole: he calls it a ſweetneſs, a ſoftneſs, a placid ſenſibility, or gives it ſome other appellation, which connects beauty with ſentiment, and expreſſes a charm which is not peculiar to any ſet of features, but is, perhaps, poſſible to all.

This beauty, however, does not always conſiſt in ſmiles, but varies, as expreſſions of meekneſs and kindneſs vary with their objects; it is extremely forcible in the ſilent complaint of patient ſufferance, the tender ſolicitude of friendſhip, and the glow of filial obedience; and in tears, whether of joy, of pity, or of grief, it is almoſt irreſiſtible.

This is the charm which captivates without the aid of nature, and without which her utmoſt beauty is ineffectual. But it cannot be aſſumed as a maſk to conceal inſenſibility or malevolence: it muſt be the genuine effect of correſponding ſentiments, or it will impreſs upon the countenance a new and more diſguſting deformity, affectation: it will produce the grin, the ſimper, the ſtare, the languiſh, the pout, and innumerable other grimaces, that render folly ridiculous, and change pity to contempt. By ſome, indeed, this ſpecies of hypocriſy has been practiſed with ſuch ſkill as to deceive ſuperficial obſervers, though it can deceive even thoſe but for a moment. Looks which do not correſpond with the heart, cannot be aſſumed without labour, nor continued without pain; the motive to relinquiſh them muſt, therefore, ſoon preponderate, and the aſpect and apparel of the viſit will be laid by together: the ſmiles and the languiſhments of art will vaniſh, and the fierceneſs of rage, or the gloom of diſcontent, will either obſcure or deſtroy all the elegance of ſymmetry and complexion.

This artificial aſpect is, indeed, as wretched a ſubſtitute for the expreſſion of ſentiment, as the the ſmear of paint is for the bluſhes of health; it is not only equally tranſient, and equally liable to detection, but as paint leaves the countenance yet more withered and ghaſtly, the paſſions burſt out with more violence after reſtraint, the features become more diſtorted, and excite more determined averſion.

Beauty, therefore, depends principally upon the mind, and consequently may be influenced by education. It has been remarked that the predominant paſſion may be diſcovered in the countenance; becauſe the muſcles by which it is expreſſed, being almoſt perpetually contracted, loſe their tone, and never totally relax; ſo that the expreſſion remains when the paſſion is ſuſpended; thus an angry, a diſdainful, a ſubtil, or a ſuſpicious temper, is diſplayed in characters that are almoſt univerſally underſtood. It is equally true of the pleaſing and the tender paſſions, that they leave their ſignatures upon the countenance when they ceaſe to act; the prevalence of theſe paſſions, therefore, produces a mechanical effect upon the aſpect, and gives a turn and caſt to the features, which make a more favourable impreſſion upon the mind of others, than any charm produced by mere external cauſes.

Neither does the beauty which depends upon temper and ſentiment, equally endanger the poſſeſſor: it is, to uſe an eaſtern metaphor, like the towers of a city, not only an ornament but a defence. If it excites deſire, it at once controls and refines it: it repreſſes with awe, it ſoftens with delicacy, and it wins to imitation. The love of reaſon and of virtue is mingled with the love of beauty, becauſe this beauty is little more than the emanation of intellectual excellence, which is not an object of corporeal appetite. As it excites a purer paſſion, it alſo more forcibly engages to fidelity; every man finds himſelf more powerfully reſtrained from giving pain to goodneſs than to beauty; and every look of a countenance, in which they are blended, in which beauty is the effect of goodneſs, is a ſilent reproach of the firſt irregular wiſh, and the purpoſe immediately appears to be diſingenuous and cruel, by which the tender hope of ineffable affection would be diſappointed, the placid confidence of unſuſpecting ſincerity abuſed, and the peace even of virtue endangered, by the moſt ſordid infidelity, and a breach of the ſtrongeſt obligations.

Let it, therefore, be remembered, that none can be the diſciples of the Graces, but in the ſchool of Virtue; and that thoſe who wiſh to be lovely muſt learn early to be good.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

COPIES *of* TWO ORIGINAL LETTERS *written in* 1776; *by Mr.* JOHN ADAMS.

No. I.

Philadelphia, July 3d, 1776.

SIR,

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The information you give me of your friend's refuſing his appointment, has given me much pain, grief, and anxiety. I believe I ſhall be obliged to follow his example.—I have not fortune enough to ſupport my family, and, what is of more importance, to ſupport the dignity of that exalted ſtation.

it is too high and lifted up for me, who delight in nothing so much as retreat and solitude, silence and obscurity. In private life, no one has a right to censure me for following my own inclination, in retirement, in simplicity and frugality. In public life, every man has a right to remark as he pleases; at least he thinks so.

Yesterday the greatest question was decided, which was ever debated in America; and a greater perhaps, never was, or will be, decided among men. A resolution was passed, without one dissenting colony, "That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and "independent states; they have, and of right ought to have, full power "to make war, conclude peace, establish commerce, and to do all other "acts and things which other states may rightfully do." You will see in a few days, a declaration setting forth the causes which have impelled us to this mighty revolution, and the reasons which will justify it in the sight of God and man. A plan of confederation will be taken up in a few days.

When I look back to the year 1761, and recollect the argument concerning writs of assistance in the superior court, which I have hitherto considered as the commencement of the controversy, between Great-Britain and America, and run through the whole period from that time to this, and recollect the series of political events, the chain of causes and effects, I am surprised at the suddenness as well as greatness of this revolution.—Britain has been filled with folly, and America with wisdom;—at least this is my judgment;—time must determine. It is the will of heaven, that the two countries should be sundered for ever; it may be the will of heaven, that America shall suffer calamities still more wasting, and distress still more dreadful. If this is to be the case, it will have this good effect, at least, it will inspire us with many virtues which we have not, and correct many errors, follies and vices, which threaten to disturb, dishonour and destroy us. The furnace of affliction produces refinement in states, as well as individuals; and the new governments we are assuming in every part, will require a purification from our vices, and an augmentation of our virtues, or they will be no blessings. The people will have unbounded power,—and the people are extremely addicted to corruption and venality, as well as the great. I am not without apprehensions from this quarter. But I must submit all my hopes and fears to an over-ruling Providence, in which, unfashionable as it may be, I firmly believe. I am, &c.

JOHN ADAMS.

To --------- ----------.

No. II.

Philadelphia, July 3d. 1776

Sir,

HAD a declaration of independence been made seven months ago, it would have been attended with many great and glorious effects. We might, before this hour, have formed alliances with foreign states. We should have mastered Quebec, and been in possession of Canada. You will perhaps wonder, how such a declaration would have influenced our affairs in Canada; but if I could write with free-

dom, I could eaſily convince you that it would, and explain to you the manner how. Many gentlemen, in high ſtations, and of great influence, have been duped by the miniſterial bubble of commiſſioners to treat; and, in real, ſincere expectation of this event, which they ſo fondly wiſhed, they have been ſlow and languid in promoting meaſures for the reduction of that province. Others there are in the colonies, who really wiſhed our enterprize in Canada to be defeated, that the colonies might be brought into danger and diſtreſs, between two fires, and be thus induced to ſubmit. Others really wiſhed to defeat the expedition to Canada, leſt the conqueſt of it ſhould elevate the minds of the people too much, to hearken to thoſe terms of reconciliation, which they believed would be offered us. Theſe jarring views, wiſhes, and deſigns, occaſioned an oppſition to many ſalutary meaſures, which were propoſed, for the ſupport of that expedition; and cauſed obſtructions, embarraſſments, and ſtudied delays, which have finally loſt us the province. All theſe cauſes, however, in conjunction, would not have diſappointed us, if it had not been for a misfortune, which could not have been foreſeen, and perhaps could not have been prevented; I mean the prevalence of the ſmall-pox among our troops. This fatal peſtilence compleated our deſtruction: it is a frown of Providence upon us, which we ought to lay to heart. But, on the other hand, the delay of this declaration to this time, has many great advantages attending it. The hopes of reconciliation, which were fondly entertained by multitudes of honeſt and well-meaning, tho' ſhort-ſighted and miſtaken people, have been gradually, and at laſt totally, extinguiſhed.—— —Time has been given for the whole people maturely to conſider the great queſtion of independence; and to ripen their judgment, diſſipate their fears, and allure their hopes, by diſcuſſing it in newſpapers, and pamphlets, by debating it in aſſemblies and conventions, in committees of ſafety and inſpection, in town and county-meetings, as well as in private converſations; ſo that the whole people, in every colony, have now adopted it as their own act. This will cement the union, and prevent thoſe heats, and perhaps convulſions, which might have been occaſioned by ſuch a declaration ſix months ago. But the day is paſt. The ſecond day of July, 1776, will be a memorable epocha in the hiſtory of America. I am apt to believe it will be celebrated, by ſucceeding generations, as the great anniverſary feſtival. It ought to be commemorated, as the day of deliverance, by ſolemn acts of devotion to almighty God. It ought to be ſolemnized with pomp, ſhows, games, ſports, guns, bells, bonfires, and illuminations, from one end of this continent to the other, from this time forward for ever. ——You will think me tranſported with enthuſiaſm——but I am not. I am well aware of the toil, and blood, and treaſure that it will coſt us, to maintain this declaration, and ſupport and defend theſe ſtates; yet, through all the gloom, I can ſee the rays of light and glory--I can ſee that the end is more than worth all the means; and that poſterity will triumph, altho' you and I may rue, which I hope we ſhall not.

I am, &c.

JOHN ADAMS.

To ---------- ----------.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

SIR.

THE following letter, written by the reverend Samuel Davies, formerly preſident of the college of New-Jerſey, was found among the papers of his brother-in law, the late Mr. John Holt, then a merchant at Williamſburg in Virginia.—It contains ſo juſt a picture of the genius, piety, and benevolence of its author, that I am ſure it will not be unacceptable to thoſe who recollect him; and to thoſe who do not, it may ſerve to give an idea of a man, who was once among the brighteſt ornaments of this country. X.

Dear Sir,

AS the Divine Being is the original author of mankind; ſo the various conſtitutions under which they are, bear the plaineſt characteriſtics of his wiſdom and goodneſs. He has not only formed man a ſociable being, but alſo placed him in ſuch circumſtances, and *bleſt* him (forgive the catachreſis) with ſuch wants as to oblige him to incorporate into ſociety; that if the tendencies of the ſocial principle ſhould be faint and ineffectual, it might be animated by the conſtraint of this happy neceſſity. The different ſtations and employments, the various claſſes and diſtinctions of mankind, proceed from one or both of theſe ſources; and ſince God is the original of theſe, he muſt be the author of thoſe alſo. In this view, every ſtation is a divine ordinance; and the meaneſt employment that is lawful, ſeems to have ſomething ſacred in it. The merchant, the planter, the maſter, the ſervant, has, if I may uſe ſo bold an expreſſion, a commiſſion from heaven, both authoriſing and requiring him to ſuſtain and diſcharge that office.

Now, ſince the various diſtributions of mankind are of a divine original; and ſince, beſides the general obligations we are under to God and one another, as his creatures, and as partaking of one common humanity, there are alſo certain obligations, peculiar to particular ſtations and characters; it follows that theſe obligations are laid upon us by his immediate authority. And hence it follows farther, that we ſhould attend upon the buſineſs of our reſpective ſtations as acts of obedience to him, and manage our peculiar affairs under a diſtinct ſenſe of his authority, which makes them our duty: for though we ſhould perform actions that are materially good; yet, unleſs we are prompted to perform them from a dutiful ſenſe of his ſovereign authority, from whence they derive their goodneſs, they will not be accepted, as acts of obedience, by an omniſcient God; but rather looked on as the fortuitous and random actions of an undeſigning agent, or mere gratifications of a ſelfiſh and mercenary ſpirit.

It would appear an intolerable hardſhip to a devout, and therefore generous and grateful mind, to ſpend no more time in obedience to our great creator and benefactor, than what the hurrying affairs of life will allow for immediate acts of devotion to god, or of benefi-

cence to our fellow-creatures. The week would be a burthen, and the ſacred hours of ſunday, would be the only time in which it would be worth our while to live and act, if a ſenſe of duty to God might not be the ſpring even of the common actions of life. But the above repreſentation relieves us from this generous anxiety. Religion may be diffuſed through all our affairs; prompt us to activity in the ſhop, as well as to fervour in the ſanctuary, and conſecrate to our maker the buſy hours of life, as well as the happy intervals of our morning and evening devotions, and the ſacred reſt of the ſabbath. This repreſentation give a ſacred aſpect to every thing, and teaches us to look upon the univerſe as the temple of God, where every one bears a part in the ſervice. It inſcribes every thing "even the bells of the horſes" with that motto, "*Holineſs to the Lord*," (Zech. xiv. 20.) And this temper of mind, dear ſir, not only may be obtained as a privilege, but ought to be ſought, as neceſſary in point of duty. We are commanded to eat and drink, and to do whatſoever elſe we do for the glory of God; and this is ſtrongly intimated in that moſt comprehenſive deſcription of a chriſtian temper, which divine goodneſs has favoured us with, in Rom. xiv. 7, 8.

Under theſe impreſſions, my brother, may you act your part on the ſtage of life! may you buy and ſell, eat and drink, live and die, not to yourſelf, but to God! My wiſhing powers are not inactive, when I think of you; but in their moſt intenſe exertions, they can aim at no greater bleſſing for you than this.

You, dear ſir, are ſtationed in trade; and in that ſtation you are placed to ſerve your God, your family, and your country: but my ſtation is a divine inſtitution, in a more peculiar ſenſe. The ſouls of men are the goods committed to my truſt—important truſt!—"Who is ſufficient for theſe things?"—May I "watch for ſouls, as one that muſt give an account!"

Perhaps, while theſe thought are paſſing through my pen to paper, ſome one of my hearers (in this ſickly ſeaſon) may be making his appearance before the ſupreme tribunal. And what account does he give of me? can he declare before omniſcience itſelf, "Lord, if I am acquitted at this awful bar, I muſt bleſs thy name, for the happy providence that placed me under the inſpection of one, whoſe miniſtrations were the means of ſnatching me as a brand from the burning." Or, "if I am condemned, I muſt acquit him; he warned me, and therefore is free from my blood"—Some, however, to whom I once ſuſtained the character of a meſſenger of God, are arrived in the eternal world, and their ſtate everlaſtingly ſettled. And is there one among the ſpirits of juſt men made perfect, that can ſay, "That happy man begat me by the goſpel, and cheriſhed me in my languiſhments, with the ſincere milk of the word." Methinks the reflection animates me with ſevenfold zeal, when carried no farther than a ſuppoſition; but if it be really ſo, bleſſed be thy name, O my God, that ever I was brought into exiſtence! bleſſed be the day in which I was born!—But what if ſome tortured ghoſt in the nether regions, now loſt through my unfaithfulneſs, ſhould, in pangs of outrageous and revengeful fury, be rending my name with bitter execrations, and heaping eternal curſes on my head, as the wretch that

conſpired with Satan to ruin him, by flattering, fleſh-pleaſing meaſures? Oh! the inſupportable thought! my ſoul ſinks under it!—Sure, if the cries of the damned are heard at all, their imprecations on ſo cruel a wretch will have a dreadful anſwer.—O that I may then acquit myſelf from the blood of all men, by declaring the whole counſel of God! leſt while I am walking thoughtleſs and eaſy on the earth, I ſhould have many tongues pleading againſt me in the inviſible world!

But what am I doing?—while purſuing this ſolemn thought, to impreſs my own heart, I forget I am writing a letter, and inadvertently fall into ſoliloquies, that perhaps ſhould be wholly confined in my own breaſt: but you will forgive it; ſince, if I had leſs confidence in you, I ſhould be more upon my guard.

My dear wife was ſafely delivered of a ſon laſt friday night. I hope you will join with us in grateful acknowledgements to our divine benefactor on this occaſion. My bliſs on earth is wrapped up in her; and ſhould ſhe be ſeparated from me, the ſurviving half would find the world a melancholy reſidence.

I hope to ſee you, God willing, next tueſday or wedneſday; and therefore had I not been in a ſcribbling mood, I ſhould not have written at preſent—My warmeſt good wiſhes attend you and yours—

Dear ſir,

Yours moſt affectionately

S. DAVIES.

Hanover, Oct. 2. 1750.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

Extract of an ORIGINAL LETTER *from the* Rev. ELHANAN WINCHESTER, *to a Gentleman in Philadelphia. Dated—London, February 1ſt.* 1792.

I TAKE the earlieſt opportunity of acknowledging your welcome letter, by the Pigou, accompanied by Dr. Ruſh's letter on the ſubject of puniſhments proper for ſchools.

I have to lament that the abſurd maxim of the neceſſity of corporal puniſhment in ſchools, in order to make children learn, is what I have more reaſon to reprobate than any other of the abſurdities that have prevailed in my time; becauſe this alone cauſed me to waſte more than ſeven years of my childhood, in which, with proper care and education, I might have laid up a great treaſure of knowledge, which might have enabled me to move in a far wider ſphere of uſefulneſs. The fact is, that the idea which I formed in my childhood, that ſchools were places of puniſhment, and that force was employed to make children learn, became ſuch an habitual ſource of fear and terror to me, that I never could be perſuaded to venture into the inſide of a ſchool-houſe, though I had the moſt intenſe thirſt after knowledge, until I was in my ninth year; and then, ſeeing ſome puniſhments inflicted with the ferula, I was ſo terrified, that I

could not ſtand it above one half-day, and never went into a ſchool houſe again, until I was more than eleven years old, during all which time I did not know how to write my name. I was between eleven and twelve years of age, when I ventured, with great fear and trembling, into our town free-ſchool, which was about two miles from my father's houſe. I went in, and, with much trembling and baſhfulneſs, aſked the maſter, who I thought looked very ſtern and ſevere, to ſet me a copy, which he did; but as I had heard that boys were puniſhed with the ferula for making blots, &c, I was afraid to try to form a letter; and I believe ſeeing ſome puniſhments of the kind inflicted, I was ſo terrified, that as ſoon as ſchool was over in the forenoon, I ran off, and lay by the walls, till it was nearly time to go home at night; and then I went home and ſaid that I was unwell; as indeed I was, through mere fright and terror. And I know not whether I ſhould ever have gone again, or not, if my grandfather had not given me a Latin accidence, and put me upon going to learn Latin, which I did, and made ſuch improvements as ſurprized the maſter, and gained me his good-will, ſo that I always eſcaped the ferula, which I believe was that winter inflicted upon all the ſcholars except myſelf; even the maſter's own ſiſter. But as I obſerved that none were ever pardoned for the *unpardonable crime* of blotting their paper, though ever ſo accidentally, or neglecting to croſs an A or t, or making any trifling miſtake, I ſcarce ever attempted to write a copy, and even conceived the utmoſt averſion to that noble art; by which means you ſee what a miſerable writer I am, and all owing to that moſt abſurd and unnatural practice which the Doctor ſo juſtly condemns. I give you full liberty to print this account of my caſe, as a proof of what he advances. I can ſafely ſay, that the ferula was at that time a greater terror to me, than death itſelf is now; and I thought the eſcaping of that was of far greater conſequence than learning to write. I always did eſcape it, and generally all other puniſhment in the ſchool, which made me count myſelf happy; and on that and ſome other accounts, I believe that I was envied by all the reſt of the ſcholars.

Extract of a LETTER *from* DR. FRANKLIN *to* DR. MATHER, *of* BOSTON.

THE laſt time I ſaw your father was in the beginning of 1727. He received me in his library, and on my taking leave, ſhewed me a ſhorter way out of the houſe, through a narrow paſſage, which was croſſed by a beam over head. We were ſtill talking as I withdrew, he accompanying me behind, and I turning partly towards him, when he ſaid haſtily *Stoop! Stoop!* I did not underſtand him, till I felt my head hit againſt the beam. He was a man that never miſſed an occaſion of giving inſtruction, and upon this he ſaid to me—*You are young, and have the world before you: ſtoop as you go through it, and you will miſs many hard thumps.* This advice, thus beaten into my head, has often been of uſe to me through life, and I often think of it when I ſee pride mortified, and misfortunes brought upon people by carrying their heads too high.

IMPARTIAL REVIEW

Of American Publications.

The Hiſtory of NEW-HAMPSHIRE. *By* JEREMY BELKNAP, A. M. *&c.*

(Continued from Page 195.*)*

VOLUME II.

THE events of ſeventy-five years, from 1715 to 1790, are comprehended in this volume; to which is prefixed a map of New-Hampſhire.

CHAP. XIII. Previouſly to the arrival of governor Shute, Vaughan had diſſolved the aſſembly, for refuſing to eſtabliſh the impoſt and exciſe duties for a longer term than one year, and called another, to which he recommended, in a too peremptory ſtile, the granting of a perpetual revenue to the crown. This, however, the aſſembly did not think proper to comply with. Thus Vaughan, though a native, and formerly much eſteemed, rendered himſelf very unpopular.

When governor Shute came to the chair, ſeveral old members of the council were removed; and ſix new ones, all of them inhabitants of Portſmouth, were appointed. The repreſentatives remonſtrated againſt this proceeding; and complained that the new appointment gave an advantage to the trading over the landed intereſt, inſomuch that an impoſt could not now be obtained, but the whole burden of taxes was laid upon the huſbandman and labourer, who had been greatly impoveriſhed during the late war. Theſe charges the governor was prudent enough to refer to the council, who, in their anſwer, ſaid that there would have been no oppoſition to an impoſt, if the repreſentatives had agreed to an act of export, according to the practice in Englond; that it was neceſſary, on ſudden emergencies, that the members of the council ſhould reſide near the ſeat of government; that thoſe lately appointed were "gentlemen of the beſt quality, and greateſt ability to ſerve the governor in that ſtation," and that they had better eſtates in land than thoſe who remonſtrated againſt them, as being unfriendly to the landed intereſt.

While theſe altercations were in hand, there was a great complaint of the ſcarcity of money, and ſome expedient was judged neceſſary to ſupply the place of current coin. Accordingly, in 1717, £15,000, in bills, were iſſued on loan, for eleven years, at ten per cent, on landed ſecurity.

Early in this adminiſtration, a controverſy had ariſen between the governor and lieutenant-governor, reſpecting the power of the latter, who contended that when the governor was perſonally preſent in his province of Maſſachuſetts, he was virtually abſent from that

of New-Hampſhire, and conſequently that the adminiſtration devolved on the lieutenant-governor. But, in oppoſition to this flimſy reaſoning, Shute was ſupported by the aſſembly and council. Vaughan was diſplaced in 1717, and John Wentworth, a member of the council, appointed in his ſtead. Without the advantages of learning or ſhining talents, Wentworth had nevertheleſs, by a ſteady attention to buſineſs, by moderation, and a prudent obliging deportment, recommended himſelf to the eſteem of the people.

The improvement of the natural productions of New-Hampſhire, lumber and naval ſtores, became, in this time of peace, an object of cloſe attention, both in England and in the province. A ſurveyor of the woods was appointed by the crown; and, ſo early as 1708, the cutting of ſuch white pines, as were twenty-four inches in circumference, at twelve inches from the ground, was prohibited by law, without leave from the ſurveyor, who was inſtructed to mark with the broad arrow, thoſe which were or might be fit for the uſe of the navy, and to keep a regiſter of them. The violation of this law, by perſons concerned in lumber, was a cauſe of frequent complaint, and was ſometimes puniſhed with fines.

Iron ore having been diſcovered in ſeveral places, and the introduction of foreign artiſts, for the purpoſe of refining it, being contemplated, a law was paſſed, in 1719, forbidding the exportation of it, under a penalty of ten pounds per ton.—To encourage the making of tar and turpentine, it was provided by law, that tar ſhould be received for taxes, at twenty ſhillings per barrel, and a penalty was laid on the injuring of trees capable of yielding turpentine. "But private intereſt was too ſtrong to be counteracted by a ſenſe of public utility. Too many inciſions being made in the trees at once, they were ſoon deſtroyed; and as thoſe which were near at hand became ſcarce, the manufacture was gradually diſcontinued." To encourage the raiſing of hemp, it was allowed to be received at the treaſury, in lieu of money, at one ſhilling per pound. "But as there was ſcarcely land enough in cultivation, for the production of corn, it was vain to think of raiſing a leſs neceſſary commodity."

For want of a due ſettlement of the boundary line between Maſſachuſetts and New-Hampſhire, great inconveniencies were experienced by the people living near the ſuppoſed line, who were ſometimes taxed in both provinces, and were ſubject to arreſts by the officrs of both. Some ineffectual attempts were made, during Shute's adminiſtration, to ſettle the line.

The province unexpectedly received an acceſſion of inhabitants from the north of Ireland. A colony of Scots preſbyterians had been ſettled in the province of Ulſter, in the reign of James I; they had borne a large ſhare in the ſufferings, which the proteſtants in that unhappy country underwent, in the reign of Charles I. and James II; and had thereby conceived an ardent and inextinguiſhable thirſt for civil and religious liberty. Notwithſtanding the peace which Ireland had enjoyed, ſince the ſubjection of the popiſh party by king William, ſome penal laws were ſtill in force; which, with the inconvenience of rents and tythes, made theſe people wiſh for a ſettlement in America; where they might be free from theſe burthens and have full ſcope for their induſtry.

Theſe people brought with them the neceſſary materials for the manufacture of linen; and their ſpinning wheels, turned by the foot, were a novelty in the country.

They alſo introduced the culture of potatoes. They were an induſtrious, frugal, and conſequently thriving people.

It was not much to the honour of the old ſettlers, that "they did not treat theſe ſtrangers with common decency on their firſt arrival;" and that the "grudge, though now worn out, ſubſiſted a long time." A more liberal policy, independent of every motive ariſing from politeneſs, hoſpitality, or humanity, would have led them to receive, with open arms, ſuch a valuable acceſſion to the population, arts, and productive induſtry of the colony. The conduct of the enlightened founder of Pennſylvania, in this particular, and the happy effects which reſulted from it, afford an uſeful leſſon to thoſe individuals (if ſuch there ſtill are in our counnry) who, like the former inhabitants of New-England, view with a jealous eye, thoſe foreigners who, quitting their native climes, come to ſettle amongſt us. *Public bodies* are generally too well informed not to know that the moſt liberal policy, in this reſpect, is the moſt beneficial.

The ſettlement of theſe emigrants, on the waſte lands, opened the way for other plantations; but as the property of the unſettled lands was not determined, no perſon could give a clear and undiſputed title to any of them. At length, after repeated application to the governor and council, the four townſhips of Cheſter, Nottingham, Barrington and Rocheſter were, in 1722, granted and incorporated by charters ſigned by the governor. The grants were made in the name of the king, who was conſidered as the common guardian, both of the people and the claimants; but with a clauſe of reſervation, "*as far as in us lies*," that there might be no infringement on the claims.

(To be continued.)

EULOGIUM *on* BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, L. L. D. &c. &c. *Delivered March 1ſt.* 1791, *before the American Philoſophical Society; and agreeably to their appointment: By* WILLIAM SMITH, D. D. *one of the Vice-Preſidents of the ſaid Society, and Provoſt of the College and Academy of Philadelphia.*———Philadelphia—1792—Price 1/10½

IT has been a general practice, among civilized nations, to celebrate the memory of thoſe who have been eminently uſeful to the community. Even the ruder tribes, in their ſongs and orations, reſound the praiſes of their heroes. Such a practice, while it evinces the grateful diſpoſition of a people, towards a public benefactor, will further tend to produce exertions in others, from which the moſt beneficial conſequences may ariſe. At the recital of meritorious actions the mind is rouſed to admiration, and powers, before latent, are exerted in the cauſe of virtue. The ſalutary effects of this ancient practice, and its prevalence among the moſt celebrated nations, are thus deſcribed by Dr. S.

The deſire of fame and poſthumous glory, "graſping at ages to come," as it beſpeaks the native dignity of the ſoul of man, and anticipates his exiſtence in another world, is alſo the moſt powerful incentive to moral excellence in this world. It is

for the intereſt of mankind that ſo divine a paſſion ſhould be cultivated, rewarded, and held up for imitation. The neglect of it would have an unfriendly influence on virtue and public ſpirit. The wiſeſt and moſt renowned nations have not only voted thanks and triumphs to their illuſtrious citizens, while *living*; but have celebrated them in eulogies when *dead*, and erected altars of virtue, and monuments of honor, to perpetuate their names to ſucceeding generations.

It was not till eleven months were nearly elapſed, from the time of Dr. Franklin's death, that the American Philoſophical Society were convened, for the purpoſe of paying that tribute of homage to the memory of their venerable founder and head, which had been much earlier beſtowed in diſtant countries; and one year more was ſuffered to paſs away, before the eulogium was publiſhed. Dr. S. in apologizing for the firſt delay, very ingeniouſly obſerves, that delay, on ſuch occaſions, is not without its advantages:

There are (ſays he) ſome phœnomena ſo luminous, that they dazzle and dim the ſight, at too near an approach; ſome ſtructures ſo grand, that they can be beheld with advantage, only at a diſtance; ſome characters ſo intereſting, that they can be duly appreciated, only by time.

Time mellows a character into true reliſh, and ripens it into venerable beauty. The public, indeed, may ſometimes too haſtily beſtow, and may likewiſe too long withhold, the tribute of applauſe due to juſt merit; but, in the latter caſe, will always make full amends, and decide at length with ſolidity of judgment, aſſigning to every worthy his true place in the temple of fame.

The euloge is undoubtedly one of the moſt difficult ſpecies of compoſition in which the mind of man can be exerciſed; and has conſequently been cultivated with a leſs degree of ſucceſs than any other. If the eulogiſt be not accurately acquainted with the character he attempts to pourtray; if he launch out into fulſome and unmerited panegyric; if his ingenuity be exerted to exhibit, inſtead of a real, a mere imaginary character; or, if he aſſume the office of the biographer, and enter into a minute detail of events, it is impoſſible he ſhould ſucceed. To Dr. S. who may juſtly be ſaid to have "grown grey in literature," and particularly in the various ſpecies of compoſition, the faults and difficulties we have mentioned muſt have been obvious; and indeed he appears to have guarded effectually againſt them, unleſs the laſt be excepted, into which we think he has ſometimes fallen. We muſt confeſs, however, that, from the variety, number, and unuſual ſplendour of the events of a life protracted to a more than uſual extent, it was not eaſy for the eulogiſt to avoid encroaching too far on the province of the biographer.

Dr. S. conſiders the character of Dr. Franklin, in a threefold point of view,——as a *citizen of Pennſylvania*,——as a *citizen of America*,——and as *a citizen of the world*; in all of which it appears truly illuſtrious.—The following extracts, written with the uſual elegance and animation of Dr. S. we conſider as valuable, on account of the accurate portrait of Dr. Franklin which they exhibit. They will therefore form a very good ſupplement to the Life of that great man, formerly publiſhed in our miſcellany:

At the name of *Franklin*, every thing intereſting to virtue, freedom and humanity, riſes to our recollection! By what eulogy ſhall we do juſtice to his pre-eminent abilities and worth? This would require a pre-eminence of abilities and worth, like his own. His vaſt and comprehenſive mind was caſt in a mould, which nature ſeems rarely to have uſed before, and, therefore, can be meaſured only by a mind caſt in a

ſimilar mould. His original and univerſal genius was capable of the *greateſt* things, but diſdained not the *ſmalleſt*, provided they were uſeful With equal eaſe and abilities, he could conduct the affairs of a printing-preſs, and of a great nation; and diſcharge the duties of a public miniſter of ſtate, or the private executor of a will. Thoſe talents, which have ſeparately entered into the compoſition of other eminent characters, in the various departments of life, were in *him* united to form one great and ſplendid character; and whoever, in future, ſhall be ſaid to have deſerved well of his country, need not think himſelf undervalued, when he ſhall be compared to a *Franklin*, in any of the great talents he poſſeſſed; but the happy man who ſhall be ſaid to equal *him* in his whole talents, and who ſhall devote them to the like benevolent and beneficent purpoſes, for the ſervice of his country and the happineſs of mankind, can receive no further addition to his praiſe.

Franklin, as a philoſopher, might have become a *Newton*; as a lawgiver, a *Lycurgus*: but he was greater than either of them, by uniting the talents of both, in the practical philoſophy of doing good; compared to which all the palms of ſpeculative wiſdom and ſcience wither on the ſight. He did not ſeek to derive his eminence from the mere profeſſion of letters, which, although laborious, ſeldom elevates a man to any high rank in the public confidence and eſteem; but he became great by applying his talents to things uſeful, and accommodating his inſtructions to the exigencies of times, and the neceſſities of his country.

Had we no other proof of this, the great and dignified part which he ſuſtained in the American revolution, one of the moſt important events recorded among the annals of mankind, would alone have been ſufficient to immortalize his name; but when we take into the account his previous labours for half a century, to illuminate the minds of his fellow-citizens, to prepare them for the mighty event, to nurſe them into greatneſs by the arts of induſtry and virtue, to ſhew them the happineſs which lay within their reach, to teach them to dare, and to bear, and to improve ſucceſs.—This accumulation of ſervices has woven for his head a diadem of ſuch beauty, as ſcarcely ever adorned the brow of either ancient or modern worthy.

In the earlieſt ages of life, he had conceived the mighty *idea* of *American empire* and *glory*; but, like *Hercules* in the cradle, he was ignorant of his own *ſtrength*, and had not conceived the *atchievements* and *labours* which awaited him. He had not yet conceived that he was, one day, to contend with kings and potentates for the rights of his country; to extort from them an acknowledgment of its ſovereignty; and to ſubſcribe with his name the ſacred inſtruments which were to give it a pre-eminent rank among the nations of the earth, and to aſſure its *liberty* and *independence* to the lateſt ages!

And again;

Endowed with a penetrating and inquiſitive genius, ſpeculative and philoſophical ſubjects engaged his early attention; but he loved them only as they were uſeful, and purſued them no farther than as he found his reſearches applicable to ſome ſubſtantial purpoſes in life. His ſtock of knowledge and the fruits of his inveſtigations, he never hoarded up for his own private uſe. Whatever he diſcovered—whatever he conſidered as beneficial to mankind—freſh as it was conceived, or brought forth in his own mind, he communicated to his fellow-citizens, by means of his news-papers and almanacs, in delicate and palatable morſels, for the advancement of induſtry, frugality, and other republican virtues; and at a future day, as occaſion might require, he would collect and digeſt the parts, and ſet out the whole into one rich feaſt of uſeful maxims and practical wiſdom.

Towards the cloſe of the performance, Dr. S. introduces a letter written to him by Mr. Jefferſon, which ſhews the extraordinary veneration and eſteem in which the character of Dr. Franklin was held, by all ranks of people, in France:

I feel, ſays Mr. J. both the wiſh and the duty to communicate, in compliance with your requeſt, whatever, within my knowledge, might render juſtice to the memory of our great countryman, Dr. *Franklin;* in whom *Philoſophy* has to deplore one of its principal luminaries extinguiſhed. But my opportunities of knowing the intereſting facts of his life have not been equal to my deſire of making them known.

I can only therefore, teſtify in general, that there appeared to me more reſpect and veneration attached to the character of *Dr. Franklin* in *France*, than to that of any

ether in the ſame country, foreign or native. I had opportunities of knowing particularly how far theſe ſentiments were felt, by the foreign *ambaſſadors* and *miniſters* at the court of Verſailles. The fable of his capture by the Algerines, propagated by the Engliſh news-papers, excited no uneaſineſs, as it was ſeen at once to be a diſh cook'd up to pleaſe certain readers; but nothing could exceed the anxiety of his *diplomatic brethren* on a ſubſequent report of his death, which, although premature, bore ſome marks of authenticity.

I found the miniſters of France equally impreſſed with his talents and integrity. The count de Vergennes, particularly, gave me repeated and unequivocal demonſtrations of his entire confidence in him.

When he left *Paſſy*, it ſeemed as if the village had loſt its *patriarch*. On taking leave of the court, which he did by letter, the king ordered him to be handſomely complimented, and furniſhed him with a *litter* and *mules* of his own, the only kind of conveyance the ſtate of his health could bear.

The ſucceſſion to *Dr. Franklin*, at the court of France, was an excellent ſchool of humility to me. On being preſented to any one, as the *miniſter of America*, the common-place queſtion was 'c'eſt vous, monſieur, qui remplacez le Docteur Franklin?' —it is you, ſir, who replace doctor Franklin! I generally anſwered—'No one can *replace* him, ſir; I am only his *ſucceſſor*.'

I could here relate a number of thoſe *bons mots* with which he was uſed to charm every ſociety, as having heard many of them; but theſe are not your object. Particulars of greater dignity happened not to occur, during his ſtay of nine months after my arrival in France.

A little before that time, *Argand* had invented his celebrated *lamp*, in which the flame is ſpread into a hollow cylinder, and thus brought into contact with the air, within as well as without. Dr. Franklin had been on the point of the ſame diſcovery The idea had occurred to him; but he had tried a bull-ruſh as a wick, which did not ſucceed. His occupations did not permit him to repeat and extend his trials to the introduction of a larger column of air, than could paſs through the ſtem of a bull-ruſh.

About that time, alſo, the king of France gave him a ſignal teſtimony of reſpect, by joining him with ſome of the moſt illuſtrious men of the nation, to examine that *ignis fatuus* of philoſophy, the *animal magneti/m* of the *maniac*, MESMER; the pretended effects of which had aſtoniſhed all Paris. From Dr. Franklin's hand, in conjunction with his brethren of the learned committee, that compound of fraud and folly was unveiled, and received its death-wound. After this nothing very intereſting was before the public, either in philoſophy or politics, during his ſtay; and he was principally occupied in winding up his affairs, and preparing for his return to America.

Theſe ſmall offerings to the memory of our great and dear friend, (whom time will be making ſtill greater, while it is ſpunging us from its records) muſt be accepted by you, ſir, in that ſpirit of love and veneration for him, in which they are made; and not according to their inſignificancy in the eyes of a world, which did not want this mite to fill up the meaſure of his worth.

His death was an affliction which was to happen to us at ſome time or other. We have reaſon to be thankful he was ſo long ſpared; that the moſt uſeful life ſhould be the longeſt alſo; that it was protracted ſo far beyond the ordinary ſpan allotted to humanity, as to avail us of his wiſdom and virtue in the eſtabliſhment of our *freedom* in the *weſt*; and to bleſs him with a view of its *dawn* in the *eaſt*, where men ſeemed till now to have learned every thing——but *how to be free*.

In the Life we have given of Dr. Franklin, ſome pains have been taken to prove that he was the firſt, who, by artificial methods, drew down fire from the clouds. This was deemed the more neceſſary, as it had been aſſerted, after his death, in ſome European publications, that others had previouſly made the ſame grand experiment, with equal ſucceſs. Certain it is, that others were in purſuit of the ſame object, and finally attained it; but Franklin's claim, as the firſt experimental diſcoverer, is now incontrovertibly eſtabliſhed. It is re-

markable that very few men have been allowed the undivided honour of their discoveries; and indeed that similar discoveries have frequently been made, about the same time, by different men, in very distant parts of the world. On this subject our author has the following ingenious observations:

There is something worthy of observation in the progress of science and human genius. As in the natural world there is a variety and succession of seeds and crops for different soils and seasons; so (if the comparison may be allowed) in the philosophical world, there have been different æras for seed-time and harvest of the different branches of arts and sciences; and it is remarkable, that, in countries far distant from each other, different men have fallen into the same tracks of science, and have made similar and correspondent discoveries, at the same periods of time, without the least communication with each other. Whether it be that, at the proper season of vegetation for those different branches, there be a kind of *intellectual* or *mental farina* disseminated, which falling on congenial spirits in different parts of the globe, take root at the same time, and spring to a greater or less degree of perfection, according to the richness of the soil and the aptitude of the season?

Our author having taken a view of Dr. Franklin's political and philosophical character, concludes with an investigation of his religious principles; a subject which, in our opinion, would have been much better omitted. No man, surely, has a right to scrutinize the articles of another's faith.——A letter from Dr. Franklin to his niece, on the death of his brother, is introduced; but although this proves that he "believed in the immortality of the soul," it affords no reason for concluding that "he believed in divine revelation." Of this, we apprehend, more conclusive testimony might be obtained; but whether he did, or did not, believe in the articles of this, that, or the other religious creed, is a question with which mankind have nothing to do. To the Supreme Being only is man accountable for his religious opinions, or the practice which is founded upon them, when this practice does not prove injurious to society. The mind of Dr. Franklin, however, was dignified by all those social and moral virtues, which are beneficial to mankind, or honourable to human nature; and, as far as it is proper for weak mortals to judge, the sincere adoration of his maker occupied a due share of his attention.

These observations, upon the concluding part of Dr. Smith's eulogium, are offered, with all due deference to the *clerical* character of the author. It may have been owing to a peculiar habit of thinking, acquired by his *profession*, that he deemed an inquiry into Dr. Franklin's religious character either proper or necessary.

The concluding part of Dr. Franklin's letter to his niece, gives rise to the following beautiful apostrophe, which closes the eulogium.

Yes, thou dear departed friend and fellow citizen! Thou, too, art gone before us—thy chair, thy celestial car, was first ready! we must soon follow, and we know where to find thee! may we seek to follow thee by lives of virtue and benevolence like thine—then shall we surely find thee—and part with thee no more, forever! let all thy fellow-citizens; let all thy compatriots; let every class of men with whom thou wert associated here on earth—in devising plans of government, in framing and executing good laws, in disseminating useful knowledge, in alleviating human misery, and in promoting the happiness of mankind——let them consider thee as their *guardian-genius*, still present and presiding amongst them; and what they conceive thou would'st advise to be done, let them advise and do likewise, and they shall not greatly deviate from the path of *virtue and glory*.

POLITICAL REGISTER.

REPORT *of the* COMMITTEE *appointed to enquire into the* CAUSES *of the* FAILURE *of the* LATE EXPEDITION, *under* MAJOR-GENERAL ST. CLAIR. *Read in the Houſe of Repreſentatives of the United States, on the 8th of May*, 1792.

THE committee appointed to enquire into the cauſes of the failure of the late expedition under major-general St. Clair, have proceeded to examine all the papers furniſhed by the executive department relative thereto; ſundry papers and accounts furniſhed by the treaſury and war departments, with explanations of the ſame by the heads of thoſe departments in perſon; to hear the teſtimony of witneſſes upon oath, and written remarks by general St. Clair, upon the facts eſtabliſhed by the whole evidence, and, as the reſult of their inquiries, make the following

REPORT.

THAT the contract for the ſupplies of the army, on the rout from Fort-Pitt, wa made by Theodoſius Fowler, with the ſecretary of the treaſury, and bears date the twenty-eighth day of October, 1790. That, at the ſame time, a bond, in the penalty of one hundred thouſand dollars, with Walter Livingſton and John Cochran, ſecurities thereto, was entered into for the due execution of the contract.

That on the third day of January, 1791, the contract was wholly transferred from the ſaid Fowler to William Duer, a copy of which transfer was lodged in the office of the ſecretary of the treaſury. That by letter from the ſecretary at war, bearing date the twenty-fifth of February, 1791, addreſſed to William Duer, it appears that he was conſidered as the contractor. That no correſpondence appears to have taken place ſubſequently to that time, between Theodoſius Fowler and either the treaſury or war departments. That on the ſixth day of March, 1791, a contract was entered into, by William Duer, with the ſecretary at war, for ſupplying the troops with proviſions until their arrival at Fort-Pitt, and at Fort-Pitt. A bond was at the ſame time entered into, by the ſaid William Duer, for the due execution of the ſaid contract, inthe penalty of four thouſand dollars, without any ſecurity whatſoever.

That the act making proviſion for the defence of the frontiers received the ſignature of the Preſident of the united ſtates, the third of March, 1791. That general St. Clair, was appointed commander in chief of the army deſtined for the expedition, on the fourth day of the ſame month and on the twenty-eighth, left Philadelphia for Fort-Pitt, at which place he arrived the ſixteenth day of April, and from thence proceeded to Lexington, and from thence to Fort-Waſhington, where he arrived on the fifteenth day of May—At the time of the arrival of the general at Fort-Waſhington, the garriſon there conſiſted of ſeventy five non-commiſſioned officers and privates fit for duty—the garriſon at Fort-Harmar, of forty-five—at Fort-Steuben, of ſixty-one —at Fort-Knox, of eighty-threee—and on the ſixteenth day of July, the whole of the firſt united ſtates regiment, amounting to two hundred and ninety-nine non-commiſſioned officers and privates, arrived at Fort-Waſhington, under orders from the commander in chief —General Butler was appointed the ſecond in command, in the month of March, and immediately proceeded to make the neceſſary arrangements for the recruiting ſervice. That he arrived in Baltimore, in the ſtate of Maryland, the twentieth of April, and continued there 'till the thirtieth of the ſame month. That he arrived at Carliſle, in the ſtate of Pennſylvania, on the ninth of May, and at Fort-Pitt on the twenty ſecond of the month.—It appears that no monies for purchaſing ſupplies were furniſhed at Carliſle, which was the place of rendezvous, for the enliſted ſoldiery, on the ninth of May, and that Mr. Smith, agent for the contractor, was actively engaged in furniſhing ſupplies for the troops on credit.

It appears by letters from John Kean, another of the contractor's agents, that no monies had been received by him on the eighth of May; and it appears, that on the twenty-third of March, there was advanced to William Duer, upon the laſt men-

tioned contract, from the treaſury, the ſum of fifteen thouſand dollars; and that there was advanced, upon the firſt mentioned contract, the ſum of ſeventy thouſand dollars, in the following dates, to wit:

March 22d	- - -	10,000 Dollars.
April 7th	- - -	15,000 Ditto.
April 25th	- - -	15,000 Ditto.
May 7th	- - -	20,000 Ditto.
July 20th	- - -	10,000 Ditto.

It appears, from the correſpondence of general Butler to the ſecretary at war, from the ninth of May to the ninth of June, repeated complaints were made of fatal miſmanagements and neglects, in the quarter-maſter's and military-ſtores department, particularly as to tents, knapſacks, camp-kettles, cartridge-boxes, pack-ſaddles, &c. all of which articles were deficient in quantity, and bad in quality.

The pack-ſaddles, in particular, were made in Philadelphia, which, with the tranſportation, amounted to more than double the price at which they might have been procured at Fort-Pitt, and were found upon examination, to be unfit for uſe.—The arms ſent forward appear not to have been duly examined, and arrived at Fort-Pitt extremely out of order, and many totally unfit for uſe, which circumſtance rendered repairs abſolutely neceſſary, and added to the delay of the troops at Fort-Pitt.

It appears that a great proportion of the powder, ſupplied for the uſe of the army, was not of good quality, though an experiment was made by major Ferguſon, at Fort-Pitt, with a howitz, who reported in favor of the quality of the powder. On the ninth of June, general Neville, another of the contractor's agents, informed general Butler, that he had not at that time received any monies from the contractors, for the purchaſe of proviſions, &c. for the troops, and was obliged to ſupply them on credit; that the country furniſhed proviſions in abundance, at a cheap rate, when money was had for the purchaſe. That ſhortly after this information was communicated to general Butler, at his requeſt four hundred dollars were advanced to general Neville, by the quarter-maſter, for the purchaſe of proviſions for the troops. The troops arrived at Fort-Pitt in the following order, to wit:

May	16th.	Captain Slough, ſixty-nine men.
	18th.	Captain Powers, ſeventy-eight men.
	19th.	Captain Cribbs, forty men.
		Captain Guthrie, twenty-three.
	25th.	Captain Armſtrong, ſeventy-ſix.
		Captain Kirkwood, ſixty-ſeven.
	31ſt.	Captain Snowden, one hundred and one.
June	2d.	Captain Sparks, eighty-three.
	3d.	Captain Butler, ſixty-one.
		Captain Brock, eighty-two.
		Captain Vanſweringam, eighty-eight.
	5th.	Captain Pike, ſeventy-three.

Total, including officers and privates, eight hundred and forty-two; and left that place in the following order, major Ferguſon, with capt Armſtrong's company, about the firſt of June. Capt. Snowden, with the troops under his command, on the day of . Major Gaither, with about five hundred men, 12th of July—and on the 22d Auguſt, the laſt of the troops, under the command of capt. Phelon; and general Butler, with the quarter-maſter-general, on the 26th Auguſt.

It appears that general Butler had orders, from the department at war, to protect the frontiers with the troops under his command, and that the delays in ſending forward the troops from Fort-Pitt aroſe partly from that circumſtance and partly from the temporary want of ſupplies of proviſions and other neceſſaries, and from the want of the neceſſary boats for their tranſportation, which were not in readineſs as ſoon as the troops were. It appears that general Butler acted with ability, activity, and zeal in his command at Fort-Pitt, and that the delays of the troops there cannot be imputed to his want of judgment, or his want of exertion.

The troops met with conſiderable difficulties and delays in going down the river, from the low ſtate of the water, and arrived at Fort-Waſhington in the following order. Capt. Mumford, from North-Carolina, with about fifty men, on the day of . Major Ferguſon, with capt. Armſtrong's company, on the day of . Major Gaither, with the troops under his command on the

day of . Colonel Darke, with the troops under his command, on the day of ; and the Kentucky militia, on the day of .

The army, conſiſting of about two thouſand non-commiſſioned officers and privates, moved from Fort-Waſhington, by orders from the commander in chief, to a place about five or ſix miles from thence, called Ludlow's ſtation, where they continued till the ſeventeenth day of September, at which time the whole army amounted to about two thouſand three hundred non-commiſſioned officers and privates fit for duty. That the price of rations at Fort-Waſhington, agreeably to contract, was 6 3-4 90ths of a dollar per ration: the price of rations at Ludlow's ſtation, was 15 1-4 90ths of a dollar per ration.

That the inducements of the commander in chief to this movement, appear to have been, to furniſh *green* forage for the horſes and beef-cattle of the army, to inſtruct the ſoldiery in field exerciſe and other neceſſary diſcipline, and to deprive them of the means of intoxication, which were very plentifully ſupplied at Fort-Waſhington, and uſed to an exceſſive degree by the ſoldiery, to correct the exceſſive uſe of which, the moſt rigid attention to diſcipline, was found incompetent.

Mr. Hodgdon was appointed quarter-maſter-general in the month of March, and continued at Philadelphia, until the 4th of June; he then proceeded to Fort-Pitt, where he arrived the tenth of the ſame month—no ſufficient cauſes have appeared to the committee to juſtify this delay, and his preſence with the army appears to have been eſſentially neceſſary, previouſly to that time. The duties of the commander in chief were much increaſed, in conſequence of the abſence of the quarter-maſter-general; and after a continued expectation of his arrival at Fort-Waſhington, for more than ſix weeks, the commander in chief gave him expreſs orders, by letter, to repair to camp without delay.

The receipt of the letter is acknowledged; but the orders contained therein were neither anſwered nor obeyed, and his arrival at camp, was not until the tenth of September. The commander in chief, until that time, in addition to the duties of his office, diſcharged thoſe of the quarter-maſter-general; and the military ſtores furniſhed by that department were ſo deficient, from miſmanagement and neglect, that many things, eſſential to the movements of the army, were either wholly made or repaired at Fort-Waſhington, and even the tools for the artificers to work with; the quarter-maſter particularly informed the commander in chief that two complete travelling-forges were ſent forward, and upon examination both of them were found to be without an anvil; many other things, equally neceſſary, where either wholly omitted, or unfit for their intended uſe. There were ſix hundred and ſeventy-five ſtand of arms at Fort-Waſhington the firſt of June, and moſt of them totally out of repair. The commander in chief appears to have been correct and attentive in all his communications with the ſecretary at war, and to have diſcharged the various duties which devolved upon him with ability, activity, and zeal.

The army moved from Ludlow's ſtation, on the ſeventeenth day of Septetember, and arrived at the place where Fort-Hamilton is now erected, on the day of they emp'oyed about fifteen days building that fort, and then proceeded in their march to the place where Fort-Jefferſon is now erected, forty-four miles diſtant from Fort-Hamilton, where they arrived on the day of October, and commenced their march from that place on the 24th of the ſame month—that the army at this time conſiſted of about non-commiſſioned officers and privates fit for duty; at this time the army had no more than three days ſupply of flour and were ſometimes at one fourth, and ſometimes at one half allowance of that article, the deficiencies of which allowance were made up by increaſing the quantity of beef, with which they were plentifully ſupplied. The army was delayed five or ſix days, on the march from Fort-Jefferſon, for the want of proviſions; and the ſeaſon was ſo far advanced, that ſufficient green forage for the horſes could not be procured, from which circumſtances many of the horſes were totally loſt, and others rendered unfit for ſervice.

The orders to the commander in chief to proceed with the expedition, were expreſs an dunequivocal, ſo much ſo, as, in the opinion of the committee, to preclude the commander in chief from exerciſing any diſcretion relatively to that object.

On the 31ſt of October, about ſixty of the Kentucky militia deſerted in a body, and the firſt regiment conſiſting of about three hundred effective men, was detached, with a view to cover a convoy of proviſions which was expected, and which it was ſuppoſed was in danger from the deſerted militia, and to prevent further deſertion — On the 3d of November, after detaching the firſt regiment, the army conſiſted of a-

bout fourteen-hundred effective men; and on the morning of the 4th about half an hour after funriſe, a general attack was commenced, and in a few minutes thereafter, nearly the whole army was ſurrounded by the enemy The action continued about four hours, during which ſeveral charges were made by part of the army, which cauſed the enemy to give way, but produced no good effect: The attack was unexpected, the troops having been juſt diſmiſſed from the morning parade; it commenced upon the militia who were in advance of the main army, and who fled through the main army, without firing a gun. This circumſtance threw the troops into ſome diſorder, which it appears they never completely recovered during the action The fire of the army was conſtant, but not well directed; and it appears that a part of the troops behaved as well as could be expected from their ſtate of diſcipline, and the manner and ſuddenneſs of the attack The commander in chief appears to have been coo and deliberate in the whole of the action, and the officers in general active and intrepid---The whole order of march, as far as the committee are capable of expreſſing an opinion, appears to have been judicious, and the ground for action well choſen.--- The retreat was diſorderly in the extreme; after it commenced, no orders were obeyed if any were given, the men having loſt all regard of diſcipline or control. All the precautions appear to have been taken, for the ſafety and comfort of the wounded, which the circumſtances of the caſe would admit of.

The committee have had no competent evidence before them, to aſcertain the number of the enemy in action—there were various conjectures as to the number, from different perſons, from five hundred the loweſt, to one thouſand or twelve hundred the higheſt.

Mr Barton, a witneſs examined by the committee, converſed with a chief at Niagara, who was in the action, and was by him informed, that the number of the enemy in action was one thouſand and forty, and that ſix hundred more had convened, but were engaged in hunting, at the time of the action. He was alſo informed, that the enemy had not collected in any conſiderable numbers until a few days before the action. This information appears to be corroborated by ſome other circumſtances, ſufficient to induce a belief of the fact in the committee.

The contractors for ſupplies, agreeably to the terms of contract, were to furniſh horſes, &c for the tranſportation of the ſupplies. In this condition of the contract there was a total failure, which compelled the commander in chief to direct between ſix and ſeven hundred horſes to be purchaſed by Iſrael Ludlow, one of the contractor's agents, to draw bills on Mr. Duer, the acting contractor, for payment, which bills were indorſed by the commander in chief, to the amount of about ſeventeen thouſand dollars, were proteſted by the contractor, and paid at the treaſury; the perſons employed by the agents of the contractors to drive the horſes, appear to have been totally unacquainted with that buſineſs, and from the want of bells, hopples, and other neceſſaries of that kind, as well as from other groſs miſmanagement, many of the horſes were loſt, and others rendered unfit for ſervice;—from which cauſes there were not pack-horſes ſufficient to tranſport the neceſſary quantity of flour from Fort-Waſhington, for the uſe of the army on their march—this circumſtance retarded the execution of the expedition.

The officers, agreeably to the terms of contract, had an election, of drawing the whole of the rations, to which their rank entitled them, or of receiving the contract price of them in caſh. The contractor's agents not being furniſhed with money for this purpoſe, gave riſe to a general order, by which the officer was directed to receive a certificate from the contractor's agent, called a due-bill, of one of which bills the following is a copy:

"Due Major H. Gaither one hundred and ſeventy-three complete rations, on the route to Miami village, as appears by Mr. Wilſon's certificate."

(Signed) MATT EARNEST,
for WM DUER.

Fort Waſhington, Nov. 27th, 1790.

This due-bill iſſued upon the officer's ſigning ſome acknowledgement of ſatisfaction for his whole retained rations, which acknowledgement of ſatisfaction forms a voucher for ſettlement, to the contractor, with the treaſury department; and the officer is refuſed payment for theſe due-bills at the pay-office, till caſualties by which theſe evidences of debt become loſt or deſtroyed, are the gain of the contractor, and the loſs of the officer.

It is ſuggeſted by the ſecretary of the treaſury, though not with poſitive certainty, that a ſufficient ſum will be found due from the treaſury to the contractors, upon a final ſettlement, to cover all theſe debts to the officers; the general order, which had the operation before ſtated, continued in force about five or ſix weeks, and was aboliſhed about the 19th of October. The privates of the levies received but three dollars pay each, from the time of their reſpective inliſtments to the time of their reſpective diſcharges, and were actually diſcharged without further pay or ſettlement; notes of diſcharge were given them, ſpecifying the time of their ſervice, and bearing indorſations, that ſome advancements had been made to them in account, without ſtating the amount, the object of which is ſuggeſted to have been to prevent transfers; the intended effect was not produced by the meaſure: the notes were ſold for trifling conſiderations. The real ſums due on the notes were various, from ten to twenty-five dollars, and they were frequently ſold for one dollar, or one gallon of whiſkey. The monies for the pay of the levies did not leave Philadelphia till the 4th of December, nor arrive at Fort-Waſhington till the 3d of January 1792, ſome time after the laſt inliſted levies were known to be entitled to their diſcharges: two reaſons have been aſſigned, by the ſecretary at war, for this delay of payment; the one, becauſe there was no regular pay-maſter to the army, and the difficulties of tranſmitting monies at ſo great a diſtance to the army, in conſequence of the want of ſuch an officer; the other, becauſe it was ſuppoſed that the army would be at that time, at the Miami village, ſo far advanced in the wilderneſs, as not to admit of the practicability of diſcharging the levies, the total defeat of the army not having been previouſly counted upon.

The cloathing for the levies appears to have been of a very inferior quality, particularly coats, hats, and ſhoes, the laſt of which in many caſes laſted not more than four days; and better cloathing was furniſhed them upon their inliſting into the regular ſervice, which was for a time countenanced by the commander in chief.

Various modes appear to have been purſued by the officers for inliſting the levies, which occaſioned great uneaſineſs and ſome confuſion; a conſiderable part of the Virginia battalion was ſo inliſted, that the terms of their inliſtments appear to have expired the 1ſt November: the orders to the recruiting officers appear not to have been ſufficiently explicit upon this point—whether the terms of inliſtment were to commence at the time of inliſtment, or at the arrival at a place of rendezvous. The militia appear to have been compoſed principally of ſubſtitutes, and totally ungovernable, and regardleſs of military duty or ſubordination. It appears that the commander in chief had it in contemplation to commence the expedition, at leaſt one month earlier than it was commenced, with the force he then had, which was not very different from the real force in action; but was prevented for the want of the quarter-maſter and contractor, and in conſequence of the extreme deficiencies and derangements of the buſineſs of thoſe departments, the perſon ſent forward by the quarter-maſter being totally incompetent for the buſineſs, and the contractor's agents not being ſufficiently ſupplied with money to enable them to execute their duties.

It appears to the committee, that in the wilderneſs, where vegetables are not to be had, and the duties of the ſoldier uncommonly hard, the rations allowed by law, if completely ſupplied, are inſufficient. This circumſtance, with others, produced diſcontent and deſertion among the ſoldiers.

It appears to the committee, that there were appropriated for the uſe of the war department, for the year 1791, the ſum of ſix hundred and fifty-two thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-one dollars, and ſixty-one cents, and that there have been advanced by the treaſury to the war department upon that appropriation, five hundred and ſeventy-five thouſand, nine hundred and ſix dollars, and fifty ſeven cents, to wit:

			dollars	cents
1791	February	advanced	15,000	
	March	do.	46,002	20
	April	do.	100,106	20
	May	do.	80,109	80
	June	do.	55,387	44
	July	do.	14,105	39
	Auguſt	do.	14,554	59
	September	do.	14,796	53

			dollars	cents
	October	advanced do.	184	81
	November	do.	107	28
1792	January	do.	33,753	
	February	do.	43,562	61
	March	do.	1,741	16
		Amounting to	419,311	1
	To which add monies borrowed from the bank of North-America, on loan without intereſt,		156,595	56
			575,906	57

And that the treaſury has always been in readineſs to make the requiſite advance upon the requeſt of the ſecretary at war. It does not appear to the committee in what manner, and to what amount, theſe advancements have been diſburſed, the accounts not having been yet ſettled at the treaſury—nor was it poſſible, from the nature of the caſe, that they could, at this time, have received any concluſive or ſatisfactory information on that point.

From the foregoing ſtate of facts, the committee ſuggeſt the following, as the principal cauſes, in their opinion, of the failure of the late expedition under Major-general St. Clair.

The delay in furniſhing the materials and eſtimates for, and in paſſing the act for the protection of the frontiers, the time after paſſing which was hardly ſufficient to complete and diſcipline an army for ſuch an expedition, during the ſummer months of the ſame year.

The delays conſequent upon the groſs and various miſmanagements and neglects in the quarter-maſter's and contractor's departments.

The lateneſs of the ſeaſon at which the expedition was undertaken, the green forage having been previouſly deſtroyed by the froſt, ſo that a ſufficiency of ſubſiſtence for the horſes neceſſary for the army could not be procured.

The want of diſcipline and experience in the troops.

The committee conceive it but juſtice to the commander in chief to ſay, that, in their opinion, the failure of the late expedition can in no reſpect be imputed to his conduct, either at any time before, or during the action; but that as his conduct in all the preparatory arrangements was marked with peculiar ability and zeal, ſo his conduct during the action furniſhed ſtrong teſtimonies of his coolneſs and intrepidity.

The committee ſuggeſt, as reaſons for leaving the number of the troops, at particular periods, and the dates of ſome facts, blank, the want of ſufficient time to complete the report with minuteneſs, and, in ſome inſtances, the want of the neceſſary evidence.

The ſaid report being read,

Reſolved, That this houſe will early in the next ſeſſion proceed to take the ſame into conſideration.

Extract from the journal,
JOHN BECKLEY, Clerk.

The CHRONICLE.

ON the firſt of March laſt, the *emperor of Germany* died ſuddenly, at Vienna, in the arms of his wife, no other perſon being in the room. His ſon Francis immediately took the reins of government, in the Auſtrian monarchy. The emperor's death will probably give a new turn to the politics of Europe. The people, in ſome of the ſtates, it is ſaid, have ſhewn a diſpoſition to embrace the opportunity now offered for aſſerting their rights. The conduct of the emperor, as well as ſome

of the German princes, with reſpect to France, had for ſome time been rather ſuſpicious. The preſent confuſed ſtate of the empire, and the ſtate of indeciſion into which all its members are thrown, added to the length of time which muſt intervene before the election of an emperor can take place, would ſeem to bode favourably for the cauſe of liberty, as well in France, as all over Europe.—Every thing on this ſubject, however, is at preſent mere conjecture.—Certain it is, that Leopold was, at all times, of an extremely pacific diſpoſition; whether his ſucceſſor will be equally ſo, time alone can determine.

In *France* much confuſion ſeems to have prevailed for ſome time. The miniſtry has been almoſt entirely change, by diſmiſſion or reſignation. Againſt M. de Leſſart, one of the late miniſters, fifteen articles of impeachment have been exhibited, relating chiefly to his remiſsneſs and inattention, in reſpect to the conduct of the emperor and the ex-princes. The death of the emperor was conſidered, at Paris, as an event ſo favourable to the revolution, that the aſſignats had a temporary riſe of ten per cent.

On the 16th of March laſt, the *king of Sweden* was wounded in the groin, at a maſquerade, by ſeveral balls diſcharged from a piſtol. The perpetrator was a diſbanded officer. Part of the load had been extracted; but the king ſtill remained in a dangerous ſituation, when the account came away.

The *Queen of Portugal* has been for ſome time inſane; but, by the ſkilful management of Dr. Willis, famous for curing the *baſileumania*, ſhe is ſomewhat better. It is ſaid that Dr. Willis ſtipulated for a fee of *twenty thouſand* pounds ſterling, before he conſented to leave England.

On the 28th of February laſt, the celebrated count Florida Blanca, prime miniſter of *Spain*, was diſmiſſed from office. He is ſucceeded by M. D'Aranda. By an edict, publiſhed the ſame day, the ſuperintendance of all the departments of government is veſted in the council of ſtate, of which the king has declared himſelf head, and the count D'Aranda ſenior member.

In *Pruſſia* and in *Hungary*, ſundry inſurrections have lately taken place. The military, diſſatisfied with their pay, took part with the citizens.—Deſpotiſm ſeems to totter every where; and to be but feebly ſupported by its great ancient pillar, hireling armies.

Late letters from *Cape Francois* ſtate, that that iſland is in a miſerable ſituation; and threatened more and more with total ruin.

By accounts from India, to the 28th Dec. laſt, it appears that Tippoo had advanced ten miles from his capital, and had ſtrongly fortified his camp, which it was expected every hour, would be attacked by lord Cornwallis.

On the 19th Nov. laſt, an engagement took place, in the Indian ſeas, between a French and Engliſh frigate; in conſequence of the former's having oppoſed the latter, in her attempt to ſearch ſome French merchantmen. After a ſevere action, the French frigate ſtruck, having 25 men killed, and 40 wounded. The Britiſh frigate had 6 killed and 11 wounded.

One of the veſſels employed in tranſporting the free blacks from Nova-Scotia to Sierra Leona, commanded by Captain Nicols, has returned from Africa, and arrived at this port, after 8 weeks paſſage. The whole fleet of 13 ſail arrived ſafe, at the place of deſtination—tho' number of the blacks died on the paſſage. Their landing was at firſt oppoſed by the natives—but they were on peaceable terms when captain Nicols left them. The country appears fertile, and on the whole, the ſettlement bore a promiſing aſpect, and the enterprize bid fair to anſwer the views of the benevolent projectors.

APPOINTMENTS——Rufus Putnam (Weſtern territory) brigadier-general, vice Willet, declined.—Otho H. Williams, (Maryland) brigadier-general vice Morgan, declined,—Joſeph Howel, accountant to the war-department.—Caleb Swan, paymaſter to the army.—Tench Coxe commiſſioner of the revenue.

MARRIAGES.——At *Philadelphia*, John D. Coxe, Eſq; to Miſs Footman; Mr. A. M'Call to Miſs Elizabeth Cadwallader, and, on the ſame evening, Mr. Samuel Ringgold, of Maryland, to her ſiſter, Miſs Maria Cadwallader; Capt. John Robertſon to Miſs Rachel Davidſon; Mr. Samuel Blodget, of Boſton, to Miſs Rebecca Smith; Mr William M Juſtice to Miſs Pfeiffer.

DEATHS——At *Philadelphia*, Dr. Henry Stuber; Mr. John Pringle. At Newtown, Suſſex county, (N. J.) major Richard Lloyd, of the late American army.——

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS, made in PHILADELPHIA, in the MONTH of APRIL, 1792.

Days.	Barom. Eng. foot. In.	Therm. of Farenh. D.	Therm. of Reaum. D.	Anemometer Prevail Wind	rain	thunder	lightning	WEATHER.
1	30 3 12	38 7	3 0	WNW				Very fair
	30 3 10	65 7	15 0	NW				Idem
2	30 3 12	41 0	4 0	W				Idem
	30 2 13	70 2	17 0	SW				Idem
3	30 3 5	42 0	4 5	Calm				Idem
	30 3 12	72 5	18 0	W				Idem
4	30 5 0	44 0	5 3	SSE				Idem
	30 4 12	69 8	16 8	S				Overcaft
5	30 3 3	54 5	10 0	S	1			Idem, rainy
	30 3 5	72 5	18 0	S				Idem
6	30 2 10	51 0	8 5	Calm	1			Foggy, rainy
	30 0 15	73 6	18 5	SSW	1			Cloudy, rain
7	30 1 0	52 2	9 0	N				Overcaft, cloudy
	30 3 0	68 7	16 3	N				Fair
8	30 6 0	40 5	3 8	N				Idem
	30 5 0	65 7	15 0	ESE				Overcaft, foggy
9	30 2 9	44 4	5 5	E				Idem
	30 0 8	60 0	12 5	SW				Idem, foggy
10	30 0 4	54 5	10 0	Calm				Idem
	30 1 8	62 0	13 3	NW				Idem. cloudy
11	30 1 9	45 5	6 0	ENE	1			Rainy
	29 11 13	48 4	7 3	ENE				Overcaft
12	30 0 14	45 0	5 8	E	1			Rainy
	30 1 13	56 3	10 8	N				Fair
13	30 2 1	41 0	4 0	E				Overcaft
	30 0 10	54 0	9 8	ENE	1			Idem, rainy
14	29 9 8	41 0	4 0	SW				Idem
	29 8 0	56 7	11 0	SW				Fair, windy
15	30 1 0	32 0	0 0	WSW				Idem, idem
	29 11 1	51 0	8 5	WSW				Idem, idem
16	30 0 12	41 0	4 0	N				Overcaft
	30 1 0	57 4	11 3	N. SE	1			Idem, rainy
17	29 11 0	44 6	5 6	W				Idem
	29 9 6	71 4	17 5	W	11	11	1	Thunder, rainy

Days.	Barom. Eng. foot. In.	Therm. of Farenh. D.	Therm. of Reaum. D.	Anemometer Prevail Wind	rain	thunder	lightning	WEATHER.
18	29 9 1	54 5	10 0	NNE	1			Rainy
	29 11 0	48 6	7 4	E				Overcaft
19	30 1 12	38 7	3 0	NNE				Idem
	30 1 7	55 2	10 3	NNE				Idem
20	30 0 7	43 2	5 0	NE	1			Rainy, windy
	30 0 7	46 0	6 2	NE	1			Idem, hail, fnow
21	30 0 15	38 7	3 0	NE	1			Idem
	30 0 2	47 7	7 0	NE	1			Idem
22	29 11 8	41 0	4 0	NE				Overcaft
	29 10 14	55 2	10 3	NE				Idem
23	29 11 0	36 5	2 0	WNW				Fair
	29 11 0	66 4	15 3	WNW				Idem
24	30 0 9	47 7	7 0	WNW				Overcaft, fair
	30 0 14	72 0	17 8	NNW				Cloudy
25	30 1 8	47 7	7 0	SSE	1			Overcaft, rainy
	29 11 13	60 0	12 5	SSE	1		1	Rainy, gale
26	29 8 5	45 5	6 0	ENE	1			Idem
	29 9 5	49 0	7 5	NE	1			Idem
27	29 11 6	43 2	5 0	SW				Fair
	29 11 2	68 7	16 3	NW				Idem
28	29 11 0	46 8	6 6	NNE	1			Overcaft, rainy
	29 9 13	66 4	15 3	W				Cloudy
29	29 11 4	47 7	7 0	E	1			Cloudy, rainy
	30 0 8	65 7	15 0	W				Idem
30	30 1 8	50 0	8 0	E	1			Idem, rainy
	30 0 13	74 7	19 0	WSW				Very fair

RESULT.								
8th gr. ele.	30 6 0	30th gr. de. of heat	74 7 19 0					
14th leaft el.	29 8 0	15th leaft de. of heat	32 0 0 0	0	NE	20	1	1 Rainy, wet, & changeable.
Variation	0 10 0	Variation	42 7 19 0		Variable			
Mean eleva.	1 30 0 13	Temperature	53 1 9 4					

APPENDIX;

CONTAINING

ACTS

Paſſed at the FIRST SESSION *of the* SECOND CONGRESS *of the* UNITED STATES *of* AMERICA. *Begun and held at the city of Philadelphia, in the State of Pennſylvania, on Monday the twenty-fourth of October, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-one: and of the Independence of the United States, the ſixteenth.*

An Act granting further time for making Return of the Enumeration of the Inhabitants in the Diſtrict of South-Carolina.

BE *it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That it ſhall be lawful for the marſhal of the diſtrict of South-Carolina, to complete and make return of the enumeration of the inhabitants of the ſaid diſtrict, to the preſident of the united ſtates, in the form and manner preſcribed by the act, intituled, "An act providing for the enumeration of the inhabitants of the united ſtates," at any time on or before the firſt day of March next, any thing in the ſaid act to the contrary notwithſtanding.

JONATHAN TRUMBULL, *Speaker of the Houſe of Repreſentatives.*
JOHN ADAMS, *Vice-Preſident of the United States, and Preſident of the Senate,*

Approved, November 8, 1791.

Go: WASHINGTON,
Preſident of the United States.

An Act for the relief of David Cook *and* Thomas Campbell.

SEC. 1. BE *it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That David Cook, a captain of artillery in the late war, and who, being ſhot through the body at the battle of Monmouth, is rendered incapable to obtain his livelihood by labor, ſhall be placed on the penſion-liſt of the united ſtates, and ſhall be entitled to one third of his monthly pay, as a captain of artillery: *Provided*, That he return into the treaſury-office, a ſum equivalent to two thirds of his commutation of half pay, being the proportion of his penſion to the amount of his commutation.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That Thomas Campbell be placed on the penſion-liſt, and that the half pay of a captain of infantry be allowed to the ſaid Thomas Campbell, who has been ſo injured by repeated wounds in the ſervice of his country, that he is unable to ſupport himſelf by labor: *Provided*, That he return into the treaſury-office a ſum equivalent to the whole of his commutation of half pay.

Approved, December 16, 1791.

An Act making Appropriations for the Support of Government for the year one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-two.

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled,* That for the ſervice of the year one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-two, and the ſupport of the civil liſt of the united ſtates, including the incidental and contingent expenſes of the ſeveral departments and offices thereof, there ſhall be appropriated a ſum of money not exceeding three hundred and twenty-nine thouſand, ſix hundred and fifty-three dollars, and fifty-ſix cents; that is to ſay,

For the compenſations granted by law to the preſident of the united ſtates, the vice-preſident, chief-juſtice, aſſociate-judges, and attorney-general, fifty-three thouſand dollars.

For the like compenſations to the diſtrict judges, nineteen thouſand eight hundred dollars.

For the like compenſations to the members of the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives, and the officers and attendants of the two houſes, eſtimated on a ſeſſions of ſix months continuance, and including the traveling expenſes of the members, one hundred and twenty-nine thouſand, ſeven hundred and thirty dollars.

For the like compenſations to the ſecretary and officers of the ſeveral departments of the treaſury of the united ſtates, including clerks and attendants, and the ſalaries of the reſpective loan-officers ſixty thouſand three hundred dollars.

For the like compenſations to the ſecretary and officers of the department of ſtate, ſix thouſand three hundred dollars.

For the like compenſations to the ſecretary and officers of the department of war, nine thouſand ſix hundred dollars.

For the like compenſations to the members of the board of commiſſioners, for the ſettlement of the accounts between the united ſtates and the individual ſtates, including clerks and attendants, thirteen thouſand one hundred dollars.

For the like compenſations to the governors, judges and other officers of the weſtern territory of the united ſtates, including contingencies, eleven thouſand dollars.

For the payment of the annual grant to baron Steuben, purſuant to an act of congreſs, two thouſand five hundred dollars.

For the payment of ſundry penſions granted by the late government, two thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-ſeven dollars, and ſeventy-three cents.

For defraying all other incidental and contingent expenſes of the civil liſt eſtabliſhment, including firewood, ſtationary together with printing work, and all other contingent expenſes of the two houſes of congreſs, rent and office-expenſes of the three ſeveral departments, namely, treaſury, ſtate, war, and of the general board of commiſſioners, twenty-one thouſand five hundred and fifty-five dollars, and eighty-three cents.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That the compenſation to the door-keepers of the two houſes, for ſervices which have been heretofore rendered, or may be rendered in the receſs of congreſs for the year one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-two, and certified by the preſident of the ſenate or ſpeaker of the houſe of repreſentatives, in manner required by law, for like ſervices during ſeſſions, ſhall be diſcharged out of the money herein before appropriated for the contingent expenſes of the two houſes of congreſs

Sec 3. *And be it further enacted,* That for diſcharging certain liquidated claims upon the united ſtates, for making good deficiencies in former appropriations for the ſupport of the civil-liſt eſtabliſhment, and for aiding the fund appropriated for the payment of certain officers of the courts, jurors and witneſſes, and for the eſtabliſhment of ten cutters, there ſhall be appropriated a ſum of money not exceeding one hundred and ninety-ſeven thouſand, one hundred and nineteen dollars, and forty-nine cents; that is to ſay,

For diſcharging a balance due on a liquidated claim of his moſt chriſtian majeſty againſt the united ſtates, for ſupplies during the late war, nine thouſand and twenty dollars, and ſixty-eight cents.

For payment of the principal and intereſt on a liquidated claim of Oliver Pollock, late commercial agent of the united ſtates, at New-Orleans, for ſupplies of clothing,

arms and military ſtores, during the late war, one hundred and eight thouſand, ſix hundred and five dollars, and two cents: *Provided*, That the ſaid monies be not paid to the ſaid Oliver Pollock, without the conſent of the agents of the court of Spain.

For making good deficiencies in the laſt appropriations for the compenſations to ſundry officers of the civil-liſt eſtabliſhment, five thouſand four hundred and ſeventy-one dollars.

For defraying ſundry authoriſed expenſes to the commiſſioners of loans in the ſeveral ſtates, twenty-one thouſand dollars.

For defraying a balance of certain liquidated and contingent expenſes in the treaſury-department, two thouſand eight hundred dollars.

For defraying the additional expenſe of the enumeration of the inhabitants of the united ſtates, nineteen thouſand ſeven hundred and ſeventy-two dollars and ſeventy-nine cents.

For making good a deficiency in former appropriations, to diſcharge the expenſes to clerks, jurors and witneſſes in the courts of the united ſtates, five thouſand dollars

For the maintenance and repair of light-houſes, beacons, piers, ſtakes and buoys, ſixteen thouſand dollars.

For the expenſe of keeping priſoners committed under the authority of the united ſtates, four thouſand dollars.

For the expenſe of clerks and books in arranging the public ſecurities, two thouſand four hundred and fifty dollars.

For the purchaſe of hydrometers for the uſe of the officers in the execution of the laws of revenue, one thouſand dollars.

For the farther expenſe of building and equipping ten cutters, two thouſand dollars.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That for the ſupport of the military eſtabliſhment of the united ſtates, in the year one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-two, the payment of the annual allowances to the invalid penſioners of the united ſtates, for defraying all expenſes incident to the Indian department, and for defraying the expenſes incurred in the defenſive protection of the frontiers againſt the Indians, during the years one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety, and one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-one, by virtue of the authority veſted in the preſident of the united ſtates, by the acts relative to the military eſtabliſhment, paſſed the twenty-ninth of September, one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-nine, and the thirtieth of April, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety, and for which no appropriations have been made, there ſhall be appropriated a ſum of money, not exceeding five hundred and thirty-two thouſand, four hundred and forty-nine dollars, ſeventy-ſix cents, and two thirds of a cent; that is to ſay.

For the pay of the troops, one hundred and two thouſand ſix hundred and eighty-ſix dollars.

For ſubſiſtence, one hundred and nineteen thouſand, ſix hundred and eighty-eight dollars, and ninety-ſeven cents.

For clothing, forty-eight thouſand dollars.

For forage, four thouſand one hundred and fifty-two dollars.

For the hoſpital-department, ſix thouſand dollars.

For the quarter-maſter's department, fifty thouſand dollars.

For the ordnance department, ſeven thouſand two hundred and four dollars and ſixty-four cents.

For the contingent expenſes of the war department, including maps, hire of expreſſes, allowances to officers for extra-expenſes, printing, loſs of ſtores of all kinds, advertiſing and apprehending deſerters, twenty thouſand dollars.

For the diſcharge of certain ſums due for pay and ſubſiſtence of ſundry officers of the late army, and for pay of the late Maryland line, for which no appropriations have been made, ten thouſand four hundred and ninety dollars, and thirty-ſix cents.

For the payment of the annual allowances to invalid penſioners, eighty-ſeven thouſand four hundred and ſixty-three dollars, ſixty cents and two thirds of a cent.

For defraying all expenſes incident to the Indian department, authorized by law, thirty nine thouſand four hundred and twenty four dollars, and ſeventy one cents.

For defraying the expenſes incurred in the defenſive protection of the frontier, as before recited, thirty-ſeven thouſand, three hundred and thirty-nine dollars and forty-eight cents.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That the ſeveral appropriations, herein before made, ſhall be paid and diſcharged out of the funds following, to wit; firſt, out of the ſum of ſix hundred thouſand dollars which by the act, intituled "An act making proviſion for the debt of the united ſtates," is reſerved, yearly, for the ſupport of the government of the united ſtates, and their common defence; and ſecondly, out of ſuch ſurplus as ſhall have accrued to the end of the preſent year, upon the revenues heretofore eſtabliſhed, over and above the ſums neceſſary for the payment of intereſt on the public debt during the ſame year, and for ſatisfying other prior appropriations.

Approved, December 23. 1791.

An Act for carrying into effect a Contract between the United States and the State of Pennſylvania.

FOR duly conveying to the ſtate of Pennſylvania a certain tract of land, the right to the government and juriſdiction whereof was relinquiſhed to the ſaid ſtate by a reſolution of congreſs of the fourth day of September, in the year one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty eight, and whereof the right of ſoil has been ſold by virtue of a previous reſolution of congreſs of the ſixth day of June in the ſaid year;

Be it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled, That the preſident of the united ſtates be authorized, on fulfilment of the terms ſtipulated on the part of the ſtate of Pennſylvania, to iſſue letters patent, in the name and under the ſeal of the united ſtates, granting and conveying to the ſaid ſtate forever the ſaid tract of land, as the ſame was aſcertained by a ſurvey made in purſuance of the reſolution of congreſs of the ſixth day of June one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty eight.

Approved, January 3. 1792.

An Act to extend the time limited for ſettling the Accounts of the United States with the Individual States.

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That the powers of the board of commiſſioners which, by an act paſſed in the ſecond ſeſſion of the firſt congreſs, was eſtabliſhed to ſettle the accounts between the united ſtates and individual ſtates, ſhall continue until the firſt day of July one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety three, unleſs the buſineſs ſhall be ſooner accompliſhed.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the aforeſaid act ſhall extend to the ſettlement of the accounts between the united ſtates and the ſtate of Vermont: and that until the firſt day of December next ſhall be allowed for the ſaid ſtate to exhibit its claims.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the paſſing of this act, the pay of the principal clerk of the ſaid board ſhall be the ſame as the pay of the principal clerk in the auditor's office.

Approved, January 23. 1792.

An Act concerning certain Fiſheries of the United States, and for the regulation and government of the Fiſhermen employed therein.

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That the allowance now made upon the exportation of dried fiſh of the fiſheries of the united ſtates, in lieu of a drawback of the duties paid on the ſalt uſed in preſerving the ſame, ſhall ceaſe on all dried fiſh exported after the tenth day of June next, and as a commutation and equivalent therefor, there ſhall be afterwards paid on the laſt day of December annually, to the owner of every veſſel or

his agent, by the collector of the district where such vessel may belong, that shall be qualified agreeably to law, for carrying on the bank and other cod fisheries, and that shall actually have been employed therein at sea for the term of four months at the least, of the fishing season, next preceding, which season is accounted to be from the last day of February to the last day of November in every year, for each and every ton of such vessel's burthen according to her admeasurement as licensed or enrolled, if of twenty tons and not exceeding thirty tons, one and an half dollars, and if above thirty tons, two and an half dollars, of which allowance aforesaid, three eighth parts shall accrue and belong to the owner of such fishing vessel, and the other five eighths thereof shall be divided by him, his agent or lawful representative, to and among the several fishermen who shall have been employed in such vessel during the season aforesaid, or a part thereof, as the case may be, in such proportion as the fish they shall respectively have taken may bear to the whole quantity of fish taken on board such vessel during such season: *Provided*, that the allowance aforesaid on any one vessel, for one season, shall not exceed one hundred and seventy dollars.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That on the last day of December annually, as aforesaid, there shall also be paid to the owner of every fishing boat or vessel of more than five tons, and less than twenty tons, or to his agent or lawful representative, by the collector of the district where such boat or vessel may belong, the sum of one dollar upon every ton admeasurement of such boat or vessel; which allowance shall be accounted for as part of the proceeds of the fares of said boat or vessel, and shall accordingly be so divided among all persons interested therein: *Provided, however*, that this allowance shall be made only to such boats or vessels as shall have actually been employed at sea in the cod fishery, for the term of four months at the least of the preceding season: *And provided, also*, that such boat or vessel shall have landed in the course of said preceding season, a quantity of fish not less than twelve quintals for every ton of her admeasurement; the said quantity of fish to be ascertained when dried and cured fit for exportation, and according to the weight thereof, as the same shall weigh at the time of delivery when actually sold; which account of the weight, with the original adjustment and settlement of the fare or fares among the owners and fishermen, together with a written account of the length, breadth, and depth of said boat or vessel, and the time she has actually been employed in the fishery in the preceding season, shall in all cases be produced and sworn or affirmed to, before the said collector of the district in order to entitle the owner, his agent or lawful representative, to receive the allowance aforesaid. And if at any time within one year after payment of such allowance, it shall appear that any fraud or deceit has been practised in obtaining the same, the boat or vessel upon which such allowance shall have been paid, if found within the district aforesaid, shall be forfeited; otherwise the owner or owners having practised such fraud or deceit, shall forfeit and pay one hundred dollars; to be sued for, recovered and appropriated in like manner as forfeitures and penalties are to be sued for, recovered and appropriated for any breach of an act, entitled, "An act to provide more effectually for the collection of the duties imposed by law on goods, wares, and merchandize imported into the united states, and on the tonnage of ships or vessels:"

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the owner or owners of every fishing vessel of twenty tons and upwards, his or their agent, or lawful representative, shall, previous to receiving the allowance which is provided for in this act, produce to the collector who is authorized to pay the same, the original agreement or agreements which may have been made with the fishermen employed on board such vessel, as is herein before required, and also a certificate to be by him or them subscribed, therein mentioning the particular days on which such vessel sailed and returned on the several voyages or fares, she may have made in the preceding fishing season, to the truth of which they shall swear or affirm before the collector aforesaid.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That no ship or vessel of twenty tons or upwards, employed as aforesaid, shall be entitled to the allowance granted by this act, unless the skipper or master thereof shall, before he proceeds on any fishing voyage, make an agreement, in writing or in print, with every fisherman employed therein, excepting only any apprentice or servant of himself or owner; and in addition to such terms of shipment as may be agreed on, shall in such agreement express whether the same is to continue for one voyage or for the fishing season, and shall also express that the fish or the proceeds of such fishing voyage which may appertain to the fishermen, shall be di-

vided among them in proportion to the quantities or number of said fish they may respectively have caught; which agreement shall be endorsed or counterfigned by the owner of such fishing vessel, or his agent: and if any fisherman, having engaged himself for a voyage, or for the fishing season, in any fishing vessel, and signed an agreement therefor, as aforesaid, shall thereafter and while such agreement remains in force or to be performed, desert, or absent himself from such vessel, without leave of the master or skipper thereof, or of the owner or his agent, such deserter shall be liable to the same penalties as deserting seamen or mariners are subject to in the merchants service, and may, in the like manner, and upon the like complaint and proof, be apprehended, and detained; and all costs of process and commitment, if paid by the master or owner, shall be deducted out of the share of fish, or proceeds of any fishing voyage to which such deserter had or shall become entitled. And any fisherman, having engaged himself as aforesaid, who shall, during such fishing voyage, refuse or neglect his proper duty on board the fishing vessel, being thereto ordered or required by the master or skipper thereof, or shall otherwise resist his just commands, to the hindrance or detriment of such voyage, beside being answerable for all damages arising thereby, shall forfeit to the use of the owner of such vessel, his share of the allowance, which shall be paid upon such voyage as is herein granted.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That where an agreement or contract shall be so made and signed, for a fishing voyage or for the fishing season, and any fish which may have been caught on board such vessel during the same shall be delivered to the owner or to his agent, for cure, and shall be sold by said owner or agent, such vessel shall, for the term of six months after such sale, be liable and answerable for the skipper's and every other fisherman's share of such fish, and may be proceeded against in the same form, and to the same effect, as any other vessel is by law liable, and may be proceeded against for the wages of seamen or mariners in the merchant's service. And upon such process for the value of a share or shares of the proceeds of fish delivered and sold as aforesaid, it shall be incumbent on the owner or his agent, to produce a just account of the sales and division of such fish according to such agreement or contract, otherwise the said vessel shall be answerable upon such process for what may be the highest value of the share or shares demanded. But in all cases, the owner of such vessel or his agent, appearing to answer to such process, may offer thereupon his account of general supplies made for such fishing voyage, and of other supplies therefor made, to either of the demandants, and shall be allowed to produce evidence thereof in answer to their demands respectively, and judgment shall be rendered upon such process, for the respective balances, which upon such an enquiry shall appear: *Provided always*, that when process shall be issued against any vessel liable as aforesaid, if the owner thereof or his agent will give bond to each fisherman in whose favour such process shall be instituted, with sufficient security, to the satisfaction of two justices of the peace, one of whom shall be named by such owner and agent, and the other by the fisherman or fishermen pursuing such process; or if either party shall refuse, then the justice first appointed shall name his associate, with condition to answer and pay whatever sum shall be recovered by him or them on such process, there shall be an immediate discharge of such vessel: *Provided*, that nothing herein contained shall prevent any fisherman from having his action at common law, for his share or shares of fish, or the proceeds thereof as aforesaid.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That the drawback heretofore allowed on the exportation of foreign dried and pickled fish, and other foreign salted provisions, be and the same is hereby repealed.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the monies which shall remain in consequence of the abolition of the allowance on the exportation of the dried fish of the united states, and of the drawback on foreign dried and pickled fish, and other foreign salted provisions, be, and the same are hereby appropriated to the payment of the allowances granted by this act, and in case the monies so appropriated shall be inadequate, the deficiency shall be supplied out of any monies which from time to time shall be in the treasury of the united states, and not otherwise appropriated.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That any person who shall declare falsely in any oath or affirmation required by this act, being duly convicted thereof in any court of the united states, having jurisdiction of such offence, shall suffer the same penalties as are provided for false swearing or affirming, by the act before mentioned, and to be in like manner sued for, recovered and appropriated.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That this act ſhall continue and be in force for the term of ſeven years, and from thence to the end of the next ſeſſion of congreſs, and no longer.

Approved, February 16. 1792.

An Act to eſtabliſh the Poſt-office and Poſt-roads within the United States.

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That from and after the firſt day of June next, the following roads be eſtabliſhed as poſt-roads, namely: From Wiſcaſſet in the diſtrict of Maine, to Savannah in Georgia, by the following route, to wit, Portland, Portſmouth, Newburyport, Ipſwich, Salem, Boſton, Worceſter, Springfield, Hartford, Middletown, Newhaven, Stratford, Fairfield, Norwalk, Stamford, New-York, Newark, Elizabethtown, Woodbridge, Brunſwick, Princeton, Trenton, Briſtol, Philadelphia, Cheſter, Wilmington, Elkton, Charleſtown, Havre de Grace, Hartford, Baltimore, Badenſburgh, Georgetown, Alexandria, Colcheſter, Dumfries, Frederickſburgh, Bowling-Green, Hanover court-houſe, Richmond, Peterſburgh, Halifax, Tarborough, Smithfield, Fayeteville, Newbridge over Drowning creek, Cheraw court-houſe, Camden, Stateſburgh, Columbia, Cambridge and Auguſta; and from thence to Savannah, and from Auguſta, by Waſhington in Wilkes county, to Greenborough, and from thence, by the great falls of Ogechee and Georgetown, to Auguſta, and from Stateſburgh to Charleſton, and from Charleſton to Georgetown, from Charleſton to Savannah, and from Savannah, by Newport bridge, to Sunbury; and alſo from Portſmouth by Exeter and Concord, to Hanover in New-Hampſhire; and from Salem to Marblehead, and from Salem to Glouceſter; and from Boſton, by Providence, Newport, and New-London, to New-Haven, and from Boſton, through Taunton, to New-Bedford; and from Taunton, through Warren and Briſtol to Newport, and from Boſton, by Plymouth, to Barnſtable; and from Springfield in the ſtate of Maſſachuſetts, to Kinderhook in the ſtate of New-York, and from Springfield by Northampton, Brattleborough and Charleſtown, by Windſor in Vermont, to Hanover, and from Hartford, by Middletown, to New-London; alſo from Hartford to Norwich, and Providence; and from Providence to Worceſter, and from Philadelphia, by Lancaſter, Yorktown, Carliſle, Shippenſburgh, Chamberſburgh, Bedford and Greenſburgh, to Pittſburgh; and from Philadelphia to Bethlehem; from Bethlehem, by Reading and Harriſburgh, to Carliſle, and from Bethlehem, by Eaſton, Suſſex court-houſe, Goſhen, Ward's bridge, and Kingſton to Rhinebeck; from Philadelphia, by Salem, to Bridgetown; and from Wilmington by Warwick, Georgetown, Croſs-roads, Cheſtertown, Cheſter-mills and Eaſton to Vienna; and from Vienna, by Saliſbury, to Snow-Hill; alſo from Wilmington, by New-Caſtle, Cantwell's Bridge and Duck-Creek, to Dover; and from thence, by Milford, Dagſborough, Snow-Hill and Northampton Court-houſe, to Norfolk in Virginia; and from Baltimore to Annapolis, Upper-Marlborough, Piſcatawa, Port-Tobacco, Allen's Freſh, Newport, and Chaptico, to Leonard-Town; and from Richmond, by Williamſburg, York-town and Hampton, to Norfolk; and from Frederickſburg, by Port-royal and Tappahanock, to Urbanna; and from thence, croſſing Rappahannock, and proceeding by Northumberland Court-houſe, to Kinſale on the river Yeocomico, thence by Weſtmoreland Court-houſe, through Leed's-town, to Frederickſburg; and from Peterſburgh, by Cabin-Point, Smithfield, and Suffolk, to Portſmouth, and from Suffolk, to Edenton, and by Plymouth to Waſhington; and from Waſhington to Newbern, and thence to Wilmington; and from Fayetteville, by Elizabethtown, to Wilmington; and from Halifax, by Warrington, Hillſborough, Salem, to Saliſbury; from Halifax, by Blunt's-ville, Williamſton, Dailey's to Plymouth; and from Edenton, by Hertford, Nixonton, Sawyer's-Ferry, in Camden county, to Indian Town, in Currituck county; and from New-York, by Albany, Bennington, Manchester and Rutland, to Burlington, on Lake Champlain; and from Albany, by Schenectady, to Connajorharrie; from New-York to Hartford, through White-plains, North-Caſtle, Salem, Poundridge, Ridgefield, Danbury, Newtown, New-Milford, Litchfield, Harrington, and Farmington; from Newark or Elizabethtown, by Morriſtown, to Suſſex Court-houſe; from Woodbridge to Amboy; from Alexandria, by Saliſbury, Leeſburg, Shepherd's-town, Martinſburg, Wincheſter, Stevenſburg, Straſburg, Woodſtock, and Rockingham Court-houſe, to Staunton; and

from Richmond, by Columbia, Charlottefville, Staunton, Lexington, Fincaſtle, Montgomery Court-houſe, Wythe Court-houſe, Abingdon, and Hawkin's Court-houſe, in the territory ſouth of the river Ohio, to Danville in Kentuckey; and from Baltimore, by Fredericktown and Sharpſburg to Hagerſtown; and from thence to Chambersburg: *Provided*, that the route, by which the mails are at preſent conveyed, ſhall in no caſe be altered, without the conſent of the contractors, till the contracts made by the poſtmaſter-general ſhall be determined.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That it ſhall and may be lawful for the poſtmaſter-general to enter into contracts, for a term not exceeding eight years, for extending the line of poſts, and to authorize the perſon or perſons ſo contracting, to receive, during the continuance of ſuch contract, according to the rates by this act eſtabliſhed, all the poſtage which ſhall ariſe on letters, newſpapers and packets, conveyed by any ſuch poſt; and the roads therein deſignated ſhall, during the continuance of ſuch contract, be deemed and conſidered as poſt-roads, within the terms and proviſions of this act: *Provided*, That no ſuch contract ſhall be made, to the diminution of the revenue of the general poſt-office, and that a duplicate of every ſuch contract, under hand and ſeal, ſhall, within ſixty days after the execution thereof, be lodged in the office of the comptroller of the treaſury of the united ſtates

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That there ſhall be eſtabliſhed, at the ſeat of the government of the united ſtates, a general poſt-office. And there ſhall be one poſtmaſter-general, who ſhall have authority to appoint an aſſiſtant, and deputy poſtmaſters, at all places where ſuch ſhall be found neceſſary. And he ſhall provide for carrying the mail of the united ſtates, by ſtage carriages or horſes, as he may judge moſt expedient, and as often as he, having regard to the productiveneſs thereof, as well as other circumſtances, ſhall think proper, and defray the expenſe thereof, with all other expenſes ariſing on the collection and management of the revenue of the poſt-office. He ſhall alſo have power to preſcribe ſuch regulations to the deputy poſt-maſters, and others employed under him, as may be found neceſſary, and to ſuperintend the buſineſs of the department, in all the duties that are, or may be aſſigned to it, and alſo to direct the route or road, where there are more than one, between the places above eſtabliſhed, which route or road ſhall be conſidered as the poſt-road.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the poſtmaſter-general ſhall, once in three months, obtain from his deputies, the accounts and vouchers of their receipts and expenditures, and the balances due thereon, and render to the ſecretary of the treaſury, a quarterly account of all the receipts and expenditures in the ſaid department, to be adjuſted and ſettled, as other public accounts, and ſhall pay, quarterly, into the treaſury of the united ſtates, the balance in his hands. And the poſtmaſter-general, and his aſſiſtant, the deputy-poſtmaſters, and ſuch as they may employ in their offices, ſhall, reſpectively, before they enter upon the duties, or be entitled to receive the emoluments of their offices, and the contractors for carrying the mail, and their agents or ſervants, to whom the mail ſhall be entruſted, before they commence the execution of the ſaid truſt, ſhall, reſpectively, take and ſubſcribe, before ſome juſtice of the peace, the following oath or affirmation, and cauſe a certificate thereof to be filed in the office of the poſtmaſter-general; "I do ſwear (or affirm, as the caſe may be) that I will faithfully perform all the duties required of me, and abſtain from every thing forbidden by the law in relation to the eſtabliſhment of poſt-offices and poſt-roads within the united ſtates."

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That if any perſon ſhall obſtruct or retard the paſſage of the mail, or of any horſe or carriage carrying the ſame, he ſhall, upon conviction, for every ſuch offence, pay a fine, not exceeding one hundred dollars. And if any ferryman ſhall, by wilful negligence, or refuſal to tranſport the mail acroſs any ferry, delay the ſame, he ſhall forfeit and pay, for each half hour that the ſame ſhall be ſo delayed, a ſum not exceeding ten dollars

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That it ſhall be the duty of the poſtmaſter-general, to give public notice in one or more of the newſpapers publiſhed at the ſeat of government of the united ſtates, and in one or more of the newſpapers publiſhed in the ſtate or ſtates where the contract is to be performed, for, at leaſt, ſix weeks before the entering into any contract for the conveyance of the mail, that ſuch contract is intended to be made, and the day on which it ſhall be concluded; deſcribing the places

from and to which such mail is to be conveyed; the time at which it is to be made up; the day and hour, at which it is to be delivered; and the penalty or penalties for non-performance of the stipulations. He shall, moreover, within thirty days after the making of any contract, lodge the same, together with the proposals which he shall have received respecting the same, in the office of the comptroller of the treasury of the united states.

Sec 7. *And be it further enacted*, That every deputy postmaster shall keep an office, in which one or more persons shall attend at such hours as the postmaster-general shall direct, for the purpose of performing the duties thereof. And all letters brought to any post-office, half an hour before the time of making up the mail at such office, shall be forwarded therein.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the passing of this act, the postmaster-general shall be allowed, for his services, at the rate of two thousand dollars per annum, his assistant, at the rate of one thousand dollars per annum, to be paid, quarterly, out of the revenues of the post-office: and no fees or perquisites shall be received by either of them, on account of the duties to be performed in virtue of their appointments.

Sec 9. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the first day of June next, the deputy postmaster and persons authorized by the postmaster-general, shall demand and receive, for the postage and conveyance of letters and packets, except such as are hereinafter excepted, according to the several rates and sums following: for the postage of every single letter to or from any place by land, not exceeding thirty miles, six cents; over thirty miles, and not exceeding sixty, eight cents; over sixty miles, and not exceeding one hundred, ten cents; over one hundred miles, and not exceeding one hundred and fifty, twelve cents and a half; over one hundred and fifty miles, and not exceeding two hundred, fifteen cents; over two hundred miles, and not exceeding two hundred and fifty, seventeen cents; over two hundred and fifty miles, and not exceeding three hundred and fifty, twenty cents; over three hundred and fifty miles, and not exceeding four hundred and fifty, twenty-two cents; and to or from any place by land, more than four hundred and fifty miles, twenty-five cents; and every double letter shall pay double the said rates; every triple letter, triple; every packet weighing one ounce avoirdupois, to pay at the rate of four single letters for each ounce, and in that proportion, for any greater weight.

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That all letters and packets, passing by sea to and from the united states, or from one port to another therein, in packet boats or vessels, the property of, or provided by the united states, shall be rated and charged as follows; for every single letter, eight cents; for every double letter, sixteen cents; for every triple letter or packet, twenty-four cents; for every letter or packet brought into the united states, or carried from one port therein to another by sea, in any private ship or vessel, four cents, if delivered at the place where the same shall arrive; and if directed to be delivered at any other place, with the addition of the like postage, as other letters are made subject to the payment of by this act.

Sec. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That if any deputy postmaster, or other person authorized by the postmaster-general, to receive the postage of letters, shall fraudulently demand or receive any rate of postage, or any gratuity or reward, other than is provided by this act for the postage of letters or packets, on conviction thereof, he shall forfeit for every such offence, one hundred dollars, and shall be rendered incapable of holding any office under the united states.

Sec. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That no ship or vessel, arriving at any port within the united states, where a post-office is established, shall be permitted to report, make entry, or break bulk, till the master or commander shall have delivered to the postmaster, all letters directed to any person or persons within the united states, which, under his care or within his power, shall be brought in such ship or vessel, other than such as are directed to the owner or consignee: but when a vessel shall be bound to another port, than that at which she may enter, the letters belonging to, or to be delivered at the said port of delivery, shall not be delivered to the postmaster at the port of entry. And it shall be the duty of the collector, or other officer of the port, empowered to receive entries of ships or vessels, to require from every master or commander of such ship or vessel, an oath or affirmation, purporting that he has delivered all such letters, except as aforesaid,

Sec. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That the poſtmaſters to whom ſuch letters may be delivered, ſhall pay to the maſter, commander, or other perſon delivering the ſame, except the commanders of foreign packets, two cents for every ſuch letter or packet; and ſhall obtain from the perſon delivering the ſame, a certificate ſpecifying the number of letters and packets, with the name of the ſhip or veſſel, and the place from whence ſhe laſt ſailed; which certificate, together with a receipt for the money, ſhall be, with his half-yearly accounts, tranſmitted to the poſtmaſter-general, who ſhall credit the amount thereof to the poſtmaſter forwarding the ſame.

Sec. 14. *And be it further enacted*, That if any perſon, other than the poſtmaſter-general, or his deputies, or perſons by them employed, ſhall take up, receive, order, diſpatch, convey, carry or deliver any letter or letters, packet or packets, other than newſpapers, for hire or reward, or ſhall be concerned in ſetting up any foot or horſe poſt, waggon or other carriage, by or in which any letter or packet ſhall be carried for hire, on any eſtabliſhed poſt-road, or any packet, or other veſſel or boat, or any conveyance whatever, whereby the revenue of the general poſt-office may be injured, every perſon, ſo offending, ſhall forfeit, for every ſuch offence, the ſum of two hundred dollars. *Provided*, that it ſhall and may be lawful for every perſon to ſend letters or packets by ſpecial meſſenger.

Sec. 15 *And be it further enacted*, That the deputy poſtmaſters or agents of the poſtmaſter-general, ſhall duly account and anſwer to him, for all bye or way-letters, and ſpecify the number and rates in the poſt bill. And if any deputy poſtmaſter or agent ſhall neglect ſo to account, he or they ſo offending, ſhall, on conviction thereof, forfeit, for every ſuch offence, a ſum not exceeding one hundred dollars.

Sec. 16. *And be it further enacted*, That if any perſon, employed in any of the departments of the general poſt-office, ſhall unlawfully detain, delay, or open any letter, packet, bag, or mail of letters, with which he ſhall be entruſted, or which ſhall have come to his poſſeſſion, and which are intended to be conveyed by poſt: Or if any ſuch perſon ſhall ſecrete, embezzle, or deſtroy any letter or packet, entruſted to him, as aforeſaid, and which ſhall not contain any ſecurity for, or aſſurance relating to money, as herein after deſcribed, every ſuch offender, being thereof duly convicted, ſhall, for every ſuch offence, be fined not exceeding three hundred dollars, or impriſoned not exceeding ſix months, or both, according to the circumſtances and aggravations of the offence. And if any perſon, employed as aforeſaid, ſhall ſecrete, embezzle, or deſtroy, any letter, packet, bag, or mail of letters, with which he ſhall be entruſted, or which ſhall have come to his poſſeſſion, and are intended to be conveyed by poſt, containing any bank note, or bank poſt-bill, bill of exchange, warrant of the treaſury of the united ſtates, note of aſſignment of ſtock in the funds, letters of attorney for receiving annuities, or dividends, or for ſelling ſtock in the funds, or for receiving the intereſt thereof, or any letter of credit, or note for, or relating to the payment of money, or other bond, or warrant, draft, bill or promiſſory note whatſoever, for the payment of money; or if any ſuch perſon, employed as aforeſaid, ſhall ſteal or take any of the ſame out of any letter, packet, bag, or mail of letters, that ſhall come to his poſſeſſion, he ſhall, on conviction, for any ſuch offence, ſuffer death. And if any perſon, who ſhall have taken charge of the mail of the united ſtates, ſhall quit or deſert the ſame, before his arrival at the next poſt-office, every ſuch perſon, ſo offending, ſhall forfeit and pay a ſum, not exceeding five hundred dollars, for every ſuch offence. And if any perſon, concerned in carrying the mail of the united ſtates, ſhall collect, receive, or carry any letter, or packet, or ſhall cauſe or procure the ſame to be done, contrary to this act, every ſuch offender ſhall forfeit and pay, for every ſuch offence, a ſum not exceeding fifty dollars.

Sec. 17. *And be it further enacted*, That if any perſon or perſons ſhall rob any carrier of the mail of the united ſtates, of ſuch mail, or if any perſon ſhall rob the mail, in which letters are ſent to be conveyed by poſt, of any letter or packet, or ſhall ſteal ſuch mail, or ſhall ſteal and take from, or out of the ſame, or from, or out of any poſt-office, any letter or packet, ſuch offender or offenders ſhall, on conviction thereof, ſuffer death.

Sec. 18. *And be it further enacted*, That the deputy poſtmaſters ſhall, reſpectively, publiſh at the expiration of every three months, in one of the newſpapers publiſhed at, or neareſt the place of his reſidence, for three ſucceſſive weeks, a liſt of all the letters then remaining in their reſpective offices; and at the expiration of the next three months, ſhall ſend ſuch of the ſaid letters as then remain on hand, as dead let-

ters, to the general post-office, where the same shall be opened and inspected; and if any valuable papers, or matters of consequence, shall be found therein, it shall be the duty of the postmaster-general, to cause a descriptive list thereof to be inserted in one of the newspapers published at the place most convenient to where the owner may be supposed to reside, if within the united states, and such letter and the contents shall be preserved, to be delivered to the person to whom the same shall be addressed, upon payment of the postage, and the expense of publication.

Sec. 19. *And be it further enacted*, That the following letters and packets, and no other, shall be received and conveyed by post, free of postage, under such restrictions, as are hereinafter provided; that is to say; all letters or packets to or from the president or vice-president of the united states, and all letters and packets, not exceeding two ounces in weight, to or from any member of the senate or house of representatives, the secretary of the senate or clerk of the house of representatives, during their actual attendance in any session of congress, and twenty days after such session. All letters to and from the secretary of the treasury, and his assistant, comptroller, register, and auditor of the treasury, the treasurer, the secretary of state, the secretary at war, the commissioners for settling the accounts between the united states and individual states, the postmaster-general and his assistant: *Provided*, That no person shall frank or enclose any letter or packet, other than his own; but any public letter or packet from the department of the treasury may be franked by the secretary of the treasury, or the assistant secretary, or by the comptroller, register, auditor, or treasurer; and that each person before named shall deliver to the post-office every letter or packet enclosed to him, which may be directed to any other person, noting the place from whence it came by post, and the usual postage shall be charged thereon.

Sec. 20. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person shall counterfeit the handwriting of any other person, in order to evade the payment of postage; such person or persons, so offending, and being thereof duly convicted, shall forfeit and pay, for every such offence, the sum of one hundred dollars.

Sec. 21. *And be it further enacted*, That every printer of newspapers may send one paper to each and every other printer of newspapers within the united states, free of postage, under such regulations as the postmaster-general shall provide.

Sec. 22. *And be it further enacted*, That all newspapers, conveyed in the mail, shall be under a cover open at one end, carried in separate bags from the letters, and charged with the payment of one cent, for any distance not more than one hundred miles, and one cent and a half for any greater distance: And it shall be the duty of the postmaster-general and his deputy, to keep a separate account for the newspapers, and the deputy postmasters shall receive fifty per cent on the postage of all newspapers: And if any other matter or thing be enclosed in such papers, the whole packet shall be charged, agreeably to the rates established by this act, for letters or packets. And if any of the persons employed in any department of the post-office, shall unlawfully detain, delay, embezzle or destroy any newspaper, with which he shall be entrusted, such offenders, for every such offence, shall forfeit a sum not exceeding fifty dollars: *Provided*, that the postmaster-general, in any contract he may enter into, for the conveyance of the mail, may authorize the person, with whom such contract is made, to carry newspapers, other than those conveyed in the mail.

Sec. 23. *And be it further enacted*, That the postmaster-general be, and he is hereby authorized to allow to the deputy postmasters respectively, such commission on the monies arising from the postage of letters and packets, as he shall think adequate to their respective services: *Provided*, that the said commission shall not exceed forty per cent to any deputy, whose compensation thereby shall not exceed fifty dollars, nor thirty per cent to any deputy, whose compensation thereby shall not exceed one hundred dollars, nor twenty per cent to any other deputy, except the postmaster at the port, where the European packets do, or shall steadily arrive: to whom such farther allowance, in addition to the emoluments of his office, shall be made, as the postmaster-general shall deem a reasonable compensation for his extra-services in the receipt and dispatch of letters, originally received into his office, from on board such packets, and by him forwarded to other offices: *And provided also*, that the compensations aforesaid shall not exceed eighteen hundred dollars per annum to any one postmaster for all services by him rendered.

Sec. 24. *And be it further enacted*, That if any deputy postmaster or other person, authorized to receive the postage of letters and packets, shall neglect or refuse to ren-

der his accounts, and pay over to the poſtmaſter-general, the balance by him due, at the end of every three months, it ſhall be the duty of the poſtmaſter-general to cauſe a ſuit to be commenced againſt the perſon or perſons ſo neglecting or refuſing: and if the poſtmaſter-general ſhall not cauſe ſuch ſuit to be commenced within three months, from the end of every ſuch three months, the balances due from every ſuch delinqnent ſhall be charged to, and recoverable from the poſtmaſter-general.

Sec. 25. *And be it further enacted* That all pecuniary penalties and forfeitures, incurred under this act, ſhall be, one half for the perſon or perſons informing and proſecuting for the ſame, the other half to the uſe of the united ſtates.

Sec. 26. *And be it further enacted*, That it ſhall be lawful for the poſtmaſter-general, to make proviſion, where it may be neceſſary, for the receipt of all letters and packets intended to be conveyed by any ſhip or veſſel, beyond ſea, or from any port of the united ſtates to another port therein; and the letters ſo received ſhall be formed into a mail, ſealed up, and directed to the poſtmaſter of the port to which ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhall be bound. And for every letter or packet ſo received, there ſhall be paid, at the time of its reception, a poſtage of one cent. And the poſtmaſter-general may make arrangements with the poſtmaſters in any foreign country for the recipro al receipt and delivery of letters and packets, through the poſt-offices.

Sec. 27. *And be it further enacted*, That the deputy poſtmaſters, and the perſons employed in the tranſportation of the mail, ſhall be exempt from militia duties, or any fine or penalty for neglect thereof.

Sec. 28 *And be it further enacted*, That all the ſurplus revenue of the general p - ffice, which ſhall have accrued previous to the firſt day of June next, not heretofore appropriated, be, and the ſame is hereby appropriated towards defraying any deficiency which may ariſe in the revenue of the ſaid department for the year next enſuing.

Sec. 29. *And be it further enacted*, That the act paſſed the laſt ſeſſion of congreſs, intituled, "An act to continue in force, for a limited time, an act, intituled, "An act for the temporary eſtabliſhment of the poſt-office," be, and the ſame is hereby continued in full force, until the firſt day of June next, and no longer.

Sec. 30. *And be it further enacted*, That this act ſhall be in force for the term of two years, from the ſaid firſt day of June next, and no longer.

Approved, February 20, 1792.

An act relative to the election of a President and Vice-President of the United States, and declaring the officer who ſhall act as Preſident in caſe of vacancies in the offices both of Preſident and Vice-Preſident.

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That except in caſe of an election of a preſident and vice-preſident of the united ſtates, prior to the ordinary period as herein after ſpecified, electors ſhall be appointed in each ſtate for the election of a preſident and vice-preſident of the united ſtates, within thirty four days preceding the firſt Wedneſday in December, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-two, and within thirty-four days preceding the firſt Wedneſday in December in every fourth year ſucceeding the laſt election, which electors ſhall be equal to the number of ſenators and repreſentatives, to which the ſeveral ſtates may by law be entitled at the time, when the preſident and vice-preſident, thus to be choſen, ſhould come into office: *Provided always*, That where no apportionment of repreſentatives ſhall have been made after any enumeration, at the time of chuſing electors, then the number of electors ſhall be according to the exiſting apportionment of ſenators and repreſentatives.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the ſaid electors ſhall meet and give their votes on the ſaid firſt Wedneſday in December, at ſuch place in each ſtate as ſhall be directed, by the legiſlature thereof; and the electors in each ſtate ſhall make and ſign three certificates of all the votes by them given, and ſeal up the ſame, certifying on each that a liſt of the votes of ſuch ſtate for preſident and vice-preſident is contained therein, and ſhall, by writing under their hands, or under the hands of a majority of them, appoint a perſon to take charge of and deliver to the preſident of the ſenate, at the ſeat of government, before the firſt Wedneſday in January then next enſuing, one of the ſaid certificates, and the ſaid electors ſhall forthwith for-

ward by the post-office to the president of the senate, at the seat of government, one other of the said certificates, and shall forthwith cause the other of the said certificates, to be delivered to the judge of that district in which the said electors shall assemble.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the executive authority of each state shall cause three lists of the names of the electors of such state to be made and certified and to be delivered to the electors on or before the said first Wednesday in December and the said electors shall annex one of the said lists to each of the lists of their votes.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That if a list votes, from any state, shall not have been received at the seat of government on the said first Wednesday in January, that then the secretary of state shall send a special messenger to the district judge in whose custody such list shall have been lodged, who shall forthwith transmit the same to the seat of government

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That congress shall be in session on the second Wednesday in February, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-three, and on the second Wednesday in February succeeding every meeting of the electors, and the said certificates, or so many of them as shall have been received, shall then be opened, the votes counted and the persons who shall fill the offices of president and vice-president ascertained and declared, agreeably to the constitution.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That in case there shall be no president of the senate at the seat of government on the arrival of the persons entrusted with the lists of the votes of the electors, then such persons shall deliver the lists of votes in their custody into the office of the secretary of state, to be safely kept and delivered over as soon as may be, to the president of the senate.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the persons appointed by the electors to deliver the lists of votes to the president of the senate, shall be allowed on the delivery of the said lists, twenty-five cents for every mile of the estimated distance by the most usual road, from the place of meeting of the electors, to the seat of government of the united states.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person appointed to deliver the votes of the electors to the president of the senate, shall, after accepting of his appointment, neglect to perform the services required of him by this act, he shall forfeit the sum of one thousand dollars.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That in case of removal, death, resignation, or inability both of the president and vice-president of the united states, the president of the senate pro tempore, and in case there shall be no president of the senate, then the speaker of the house of representatives, for the time being, shall act as president of the the united states, until the disability be removed, or a president shall be elected.

Sec. 10, *And be it further enacted*, That whenever the offices of president and vice-president shall both become vacant, the secretary of state shall forthwith cause a notification thereof to be made to the executive of every state, and shall also cause the same to be published in at least one of the newspapers printed in each state, specifying that electors of the president of the united states shall be appointed or chosen in the several states within thirty-four days preceding the first Wednesday in December then next ensuing : *Provided*, There shall be the space of two months between the date of such notification and the said first Wednesday in December, but if there shall not be the space two of months between the date of such notification and the first Wednesday in December, and if the term for which the president and vice-president last in office were elected shall not expire on the third day of March next ensuing, then the secretary of state shall specify in the notification that the electors shall be appointed or chosen within thirty-four days preceding the first Wednesday in December in the year next ensuing, within which time the electors shall accordingly be appointed or chosen, and the electors shall meet and give their votes on the said first Wednesday in December, and the proceedings and duties of the said electors and others shall be pursuant to the directions prescribed in this act.

Sec. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That the only evidence of a refusal to accept, or of a resignation of the office of president or vice-president, shall be an instrument in writing declaring the same, and subscribed by the person refusing to accept, or resigning, as the case may be, and delivered into the office of the secretary of state.

Sec. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That the term of four years for which a president and vice-president shall be elected shall in all cases commence on the fourth day of March next succeeding the day on which the votes of the electors shall have been given.

Approved, March 1, 1792.

An Act for making farther and more effectual Provision for the Protection of the Frontiers of the United States.

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled*, That the battalion of artillery now in service be completed according to the establishment, and that the two regiments of infantry now in service, be completed to the number of nine hundred and sixty non-commissioned officers, privates and musicians each.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That there shall be raised for a term not exceeding three years, three additional regiments, each of which, exclusively of the commissioned officers, shall consist of nine hundred and sixty non-commissioned officers, privates and musicians; and that one of the said regiments be organized in the following manner, that is to say, two battalions of infantry, each of which, exclusively of the commissioned officers, shall consist of three hundred and twenty non-commissioned officers, privates and musicians; and one squadron of light dragoons, which, exclusively of the commissioned officers, shall consist of three hundred and twenty non-commissioned officers, privates and musicians, and that it shall be a condition in the inlistment of the said dragoons, to serve as dismounted dragoons, whenever they shall be ordered thereto: that the organization of the said squadron of light dragoons shall be as follows, to wit; one major, one adjutant, one quarter master, one surgeon's mate, and four troops, each of which shall consist of one captain, one lieutenant, one cornet, four serjeants, four corporals, one farrier, one saddler, one trumpeter, and sixty-nine dragoons; and the president may arm the said troops as he shall think proper:

Sec. 3. *Provided always, and be it further enacted*, That it shall be lawful for the president of the united states to organize the said five regiments of infantry, and the said corps of horse and artillery, as he shall judge expedient, diminishing the number of corps, or taking from one corps and adding to another, as shall appear to him proper, so that the whole number of officers and men shall not exceed the limits above prescribed:—*Provided*, That the said three regiments shall be discharged as soon as the united states shall be at peace with the Indian tribes.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the non-commissioned officers, privates and musicians of the said three regiments, shall be inlisted for the term of three years, unless previously discharged.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That every recruit who shall be inlisted by virtue of this act, shall receive eight dollars bounty, and that the same shall be made up to the non-commissioned officers, privates and musicians now in service, who have inlisted for three years, since the passing of the act intituled, "An act for regulating the military establishment of the united states."

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That the commissioned officers, who shall be employed to recruit for the establishment, shall be entitled to receive, for every recruit, duly inlisted and mustered, two dollars.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the monthly pay of the commissioned officers, non-commissioned officers, privates and musicians, on the military establishment of the united states, and of the three regiments authorized by this act, shall be, in future, as follows, free of all deductions, to wit:—GENERAL STAFF—A major general, one hundred and sixty-six dollars. A brigadier general, one hundred and four dollars. Quarter master, one hundred dollars. Adjutant, to do also the duty of inspector, seventy-five dollars. Chaplain, fifty dollars. Surgeon, seventy dollars. Deputy quarter master, fifty dollars. Aid de camp, in addition to his pay in the line, twenty-four dollars. Brigade major, to act also as deputy inspector, in addition to his pay in the line, twenty-four dollars. Principal artificer, forty dollars. Second artificer, twenty-six dollars.—REGIMENTAL—Lieutenant colonel commandant, seventy-five dollars. Major commandant of artillery, and major of dragoons, fifty-five dollars. Paymaster, in addition to his pay in the line, ten dollars. Quar-

tery master, in addition to his pay in the line, eight dollars. Adjutant, in addition to his pay in the line, ten dollars. Majors of infantry, fifty dollars. Captains, forty dollars. Lieutenants, twenty-six dollars. Enfigns and cornets, twenty dollars. Surgeons, forty-five dollars. Mates, thirty dollars. Serjeant majors and quarter-master ferjeants, feven dollars. Senior muficians, fix dollars. Serjeants, fix dollars. Corporals, five dollars. Privates, three dollars. Muficians, four dollars. Artificers allowed to the infantry, light dragoons, and artillery, and included as privates, eight dollars. Matrons and nurfes in the hofpital, eight dollars.

Sec. 8 *And be it further enacted*, That the rations, or money in lieu thereof, for the commiffioned, non-commiffioned officers, privates and muficians of the additional troops herein mentioned, fhall be the fame as defcribed in the aforefaid act, intituled "An act for regulating the military eftablifhment of the united ftates," and in the act paffed in the third feffion of the firft congrefs, intituled "An act for raifing and adding another regiment to the military eftablifhment of the united ftates, and for making further provifion for the protection of the frontiers."

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That the forage, to be allowed to the officers of the additional regiments authorized by this act, be the fame as defcribed by the act before mentioned.

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That the allowance of clothing for non-commiffioned officers and privates of the infantry of the faid three regiments, fhall be the fame as is by law eftablifhed: that fuitable clothing be provided for the cavalry, and adapted to the nature of the fervice, and conformed as near as may be to the value of the clothing allowed to the infantry and artillery.

Sec. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That all the commiffioned, and non-commiffioned officers, privates and muficians of the faid three regiments, fhall take the fame oaths, fhall be governed by the fame rules and regulations, and in cafes of difabilities, fhall receive the fame compenfations, as are defcribed in the before-mentioned act, intituled "An act for regulating the military eftablifhment of the united ftates."

Sec. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That it fhall be lawful for the prefident of the united ftates, to forbear to raife, or to difcharge, after they fhall be raifed, the whole or any part of the faid three additional regiments, in cafe events fhall in his judgment, render his fo doing conffiftent with the public fafety.

Sec. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That the prefident be, and he hereby is authorized, from time to time, to call into fervice, and for fuch periods as he may deem requifite, fuch number of cavalry as, in his judgment, may be neceffary for the protection of the frontiers: *Provided*, That the non-commiffioned officers fhall not be allowed more than one dollar per day, nor the privates more than feventy five cents per day, each perfon finding his horfe, arms and accoutrements, and at his own rifque, and twenty five cents per day in lieu of rations and forage: Provided he furnifh himfelf therewith.

Sec. 14. *And be it further enacted*, That the prefident alone be, and he hereby is authorized to appoint, for the cavalry fo to be engaged, the proper commiffioned officers, who fhall not exceed, in number and rank, the proportions affigned to the faid three regiments, and whofe pay and other allowances fhall not, exclufively of fifty cents per day for the ufe and rifque of their horfes, exceed thofe of officers of correfponding rank, in the faid regiments.

Sec. 15. *And be it further enacted*, That the prefident of the united ftates be authorized, in cafe he fhall deem the meafure expedient, to employ fuch number of the Indians, and for fuch compenfations, as he may think proper: *Provided*, The faid compenfations do not, in the whole, exceed twenty thoufand dollars.

Approved, March 5, 1792.

An Act declaring the conſent of Congreſs to a certain act of the State of Maryland, and to continue for a longer time, an act declaring the aſſent of Congreſs to certain acts of the States of Maryland, Georgia, and Rhode-Iſland and Providence Plantations, ſo far as the ſame reſpects the States of Georgia, and Rhode-Iſland and Providence Plantations.

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That the conſent of congreſs be, and is hereby granted and declared to the operation of an act of the general aſſembly of Maryland, made and

paſſed at a ſeſſion begun and held at the city of Annapolis, on the firſt Monday in November laſt, intituled, "An act empowering the wardens of the port of Baltimore to levy and collect the duty therein mentioned."

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the act intituled "An act declaring the aſſent of congreſs to certain acts of the ſtates of Maryland, Georgia, and Rhode-Iſland and Providence Plantations," ſhall be continued, and is hereby declared to be in full force, ſo far as the ſame reſpects the ſtates of Georgia and Rhode-Iſland and Providence Plantations.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That this act ſhall be and continue in force for the term of three years, and from thence to the end of the next ſeſſion of congreſs, and no longer.

Approved, March 19, 1792.

An Act to provide for the ſettlement of the Claims of Widows and Orphans barred by the Limitations heretofore eſtabliſhed and to regulate the Claims to Invalid Penſions.

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That the operation of the reſolutions of the late congreſs of the united ſtates, paſſed on the ſecond day of November, one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-five, and the twenty-third day of July, one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-ſeven, ſo far as they have barred, or may be conſtrued to bar the claims of the widow or orphans of any officer of the late army, to the ſeven years half pay of ſuch officer, ſhall, from and after the paſſing this act, be ſuſpended for and during the term of two years.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That any commiſſioned officer, not having received the commutation of half pay, and any non-commiſſioned officer, ſoldier or ſeaman, diſabled in the actual ſervice of the united ſtates, during the late war, by wounds or other known cauſe, who did not deſert from the ſaid ſervice, ſhall be entitled to be placed on the penſion liſt of the united ſtates, during life or the continuance of ſuch diſability, and ſhall alſo be allowed ſuch farther ſum for the arrears of penſion, from the time of ſuch diſability, not exceeding the rate of the annual allowance, in conſequence of his diſability, as the circuit court of the diſtrict in which they reſpectively reſide, may think juſt. *Provided*, That in every ſuch caſe, the rules and regulations following ſhall be complied with; that is to ſay:—Firſt. Every applicant ſhall attend the court in perſon, except where it ſhall be certified by two magiſtrates that he is unable to do ſo, and ſhall produce to the circuit court, the following proofs, to wit:—A certificate from the commanding officer of the ſhip, regiment, corps or company, in which he ſerved, ſetting forth his diſability, and that he was thus diſabled while in the ſervice of the united ſtates; or the affidavits of two credible witneſſes to the ſame effect.---The affidavits of three reputable freeholders of the city, town, or country, in which he reſides, aſcertaining of their own knowledge, the mode of life, employment, labor, or means of ſupport of ſuch applicant, for the laſt twelve months.—Secondly. The circuit court, upon receipt of the proofs aforeſaid, ſhall forthwith proceed to examine into the nature of the wound, or other cauſe of diſability of ſuch applicant, and having aſcertained the degree thereof, ſhall certify the ſame, and tranſmit the reſult of their enquiry, in caſe, in their opinion, the applicant ſhould be put on the penſion-liſt, to the ſecretary at war, together with their opinion in writing, what proportion of the monthly pay of ſuch applicant will be equivalent to the degree of diſability aſcertained in manner aforeſaid.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the clerk of the diſtrict court, in each diſtrict, ſhall publiſh this act in ſuch manner as the judge of the diſtrict court ſhall think effectual to give general information thereof to the people of the diſtrict, and ſhall give like information of the times and places of holding the circuit courts in ſuch diſtrict. And in diſtricts wherein a circuit court is not directed by law to be holden, the judge of the diſtrict court ſhall be, and he hereby is authorized to exerciſe all the powers given by this act to the reſpective circuit courts. And it ſhall be the duty of the judges of the circuit courts reſpectively, during the term of two years from the paſſing of this act, to remain at the places where the ſaid courts ſhall be holden, five days at the leaſt from the time of opening the ſeſſions thereof, that perſons diſabled as aforeſaid, may have full opportunity to make their application for the relief propoſed by this act.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the ſecretary at war, upon the receipt of the proofs, certificate and opinion aforeſaid, ſhall cauſe the ſame to be duly filed in his office, and place the name of ſuch applicant on the penſion-liſt of the united ſtates, in conformity thereto: *Provided always*, That in any caſe, where the ſaid ſecretary ſhall have cauſe to ſuſpect impoſition or miſtake, he ſhall have power to withhold the name of ſuch applicant from the penſion-liſt, and make report of the ſame to congreſs, at their next ſeſſion.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That all non-commiſſioned officers, ſoldiers and ſeamen, diſabled in the actual ſervice of the united ſtates, during the late war, whoſe diſability and rate of allowance have been aſcertained, purſuant to the regulations preſcribed by the late congreſs, and have not applied to be placed on the penſion-liſt, until after the time, limited by the act of congreſs for that purpoſe, was expired, ſhall now be placed on the penſion-liſt, and be entitled to demand and receive their reſpective penſions, according to the allowances aſcertained as aforeſaid, any thing in this act, or any act of the late congreſs, to the contrary, notwithſtanding.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the paſſing of this act, no ſale, tranſfer or mortgage of the whole or any part of the penſion or arrearages of penſion, payable to any non-commiſſioned officer, ſoldier or ſeaman, before the ſame ſhall become due, ſhall be valid. And every perſon, claiming ſuch penſion or arrears of penſion, or any part thereof, under power of attorney or ſubſtitution, ſhall, before the ſame is paid, make oath or affirmation before ſome juſtice of the peace of the place where the ſame is payable, that ſuch power or ſubſtitution is not given by reaſon of any tranſfer of ſuch penſion, or arrears of penſion, and any perſon who ſhall ſwear or affirm falſely in the premiſes, and be thereof convicted, ſhall ſuffer, as for wilful and corrupt perjury.

Approved, March 23, 1792.

An Act providing for the ſettlement of the Claims of perſons under particular circumſtances barred by the Limitations heretofore eſtabliſhed.

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That the operation of the reſolutions of the late congreſs of the united ſtates, paſſed on the ſecond day of November, one thouſand ſeven hundred, and eighty-five, and the twenty-third day of July, one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-ſeven, ſo far as they have barred, or may be conſtrued to bar the claims of any officer, ſoldier, artificer, ſailor or marine of the late army or navy of the united ſtates, for perſonal ſervices rendered to the united ſtates, in the military or naval department, ſhall, from and after the paſſing of this act, be ſuſpended, for and during the term of two years. And that every ſuch officer, ſoldier, artificer, ſailor and marine having claims for ſervices rendered to the united ſtates, in the military or naval departments, who ſhall exhibit the ſame, for liquidation, at the treaſury of the united ſtates, at any time during the ſaid term of two years, ſhall be entitled to an adjuſtment, and allowance thereof on the ſame principles, as if the ſame had been exhibited, within the term preſcribed by the aforeſaid reſolutions of congreſs: *Provided*, That nothing herein ſhall be conſtrued to extend to claims for rations or ſubſiſtence money.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That no balances hereafter to be certified, as due from the united ſtates, ſhall be regiſtered in any other name, than that of the original claimant, or of his heirs, executors or adminiſtrators; and ſuch balances ſhall be tranſferable only at the treaſury, by virtue of powers actually executed after ſuch regiſtry, expreſſing the ſum to be tranſferred, and in purſuance of ſuch general rules, as have been, or ſhall be preſcribed for that purpoſe.

Approved, March 27, 1792.

An Act for the relief of certain Widows, Orphans, Invalids, and other Perſons.

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That the comptroller of the treaſury adjuſt the claims of the widows and orphans reſpectively, as the caſe may be, of the late colonel Owen Roberts, captain William White, lieutenant colonel Bernard Elliott, major Samuel

Wife, major Benjamin Huger, lieutenant John Bush, and major Charles Motte, deceased, all of whom were killed or died in the service of the united states, for the seven years half-pay stipulated by the resolve of congress of the twenty-fourth day of August, one thousand seven hundred and eighty; and that the register of the treasury do issue his certificates accordingly.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the secretary of the department of war be, and he hereby is required to place on the invalid list, Timothy Mix, disabled in the late war, by the loss of his right hand, while in the service of the united states, at the rate of five dollars per month, to commence on the fourth day of February one thousand seven hundred and eighty-three That the said secretary place on the invalid list, Abel Turney, mariner, disabled while in the service of the united states, at the rate of one dollar per month, to commence on the first day of January, one thousand seven hundred and eighty-one.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the arrears of the said pensions be paid as the laws direct in similar cases.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the comptroller of the treasury be, and he hereby is required to adjust the accounts of Joseph Pannil, a lieutenant colonel in the service of the united states, as a deranged officer, upon the principles of the act of the late congress, of the third of October one thousand seven hundred and eighty, and to allow him the usual commutation of the half-pay for life of a lieutenant colonel, and that the register of the treasury be, and he hereby is required to grant a certificate for the amount of the balance due to him. That the comptroller adjust the account of the late brigadier general De Haas, admitting to the credit of the said account, such sums as by evidence shall appear to have been advanced for the public service, and which have been charged by the united states to the officers who have received the same for the public service, and that the said register do grant a certificate for the balance due on such settlement. That the said comptroller adjust the account of Thomas M'Intire, a captain in the service of the united states, during the late war, and allow him the usual commutation of the half-pay for life of a captain, and that the said register grant a certificate for the amount thereof accordingly.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That the comptroller of the treasury be, and he hereby is required to adjust the account of Francis Suzor Debevere, a surgeon's mate in the service of the united states during the late war, and who remained in captivity to the end thereof, and that the register of the treasury be, and he hereby is required to grant a certificate for the amount which shall be found due for the services of the said Francis Suzor Debevere. That the said comptroller adjust the account of Robert King, as a lieutenant, deranged upon the principles of the act of the late congress, passed the twenty-fourth day of November, one thousand seven hundred and seventy-eight, and that the said register grant a certificate accordingly. That the comptroller adjust the account of Lemuel Sherman, as a sailing master of a galley on lake Champlain, and as such taken prisoner; and that the said register grant a certificate accordingly.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That there be granted to Nicholas Ferdinand Westfall, who left the British service and joined the army of the united states, during the late war, one hundred acres of unappropriated land in the western territory of the united states, free of all charges, and also the sum of three hundred and thirty-six dollars, out of any money appropriated to the contingent charges of government.

Approved, March 27, 1792.

An Act supplementary to the Act for making further and more effectual Provision for the protection of the Frontiers of the United States.

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled*, That it shall be lawful for the president of the united states, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, to appoint such number of brigadier-generals as may be conducive to the good of the public service. Provided the whole number appointed, or to be appointed, shall not exceed four.

Approved, March 28, 1792.

An Act for finiſhing the Light-Houſe on Baldhead at the mouth of Cape Fear river in the ſtate of North-Carolina.

BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled, That the ſecretary of the treaſury, under the direction of the preſident of the united ſtates, be authoriſed, as ſoon as may be, to cauſe to be finiſhed in ſuch manner as ſhall appear adviſeable, the light-houſe heretofore begun under the authority of the ſtate of North-Carolina, on Baldhead at the mouth of Cape Fear river in the ſaid ſtate: and that a ſum, not exceeding four thouſand dollars, be appropriated for the ſame, out of any monies heretofore appropriated, which may remain unexpended, after ſatisfying the purpoſes for which they were appropriated, or out of any other monies, which may be in the treaſury, not ſubject to any prior appropriation.

Approved, April 2, 1792.

An Act eſtabliſhing a Mint, and regulating the Coins of the United States.

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled, and it is hereby enacted and declared,* That a mint, for the purpoſe of a national coinage, be, and the ſame is eſtabliſhed; to be ſituate and carried on at the ſeat of the government of the united ſtates, for the time being: and that for the well conducting of the buſineſs of the ſaid mint, there ſhall be the following officers and perſons, namely,—a director, an aſſayer, a chief coiner, an engraver, a treaſurer.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That the director of the mint ſhall employ as many clerks, workmen and ſervants, as he ſhall from time to time find neceſſary, ſubject to the approbation of the preſident of the united ſtates.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted,* That the reſpective functions and duties of the officers above mentioned ſhall be as follow. The director of the mint ſhall have the chief management of the buſineſs thereof and ſhall ſuperintend all other officers and perſons who ſhall be employed therein. The aſſayer ſhall receive and give receipts for all metals which may lawfully be brought to the mint to be coined; ſhall aſſay all ſuch of them as may require it, and ſhall deliver them to the chief coiner to be coined. The chief coiner ſhall cauſe to be coined all metal which ſhall be received by him for that purpoſe, according to ſuch regulations as ſhall be preſcribed by this or any future law. The engraver ſhall ſink and prepare the neceſſary dies for ſuch coinage, with the proper devices and inſcriptions, but it ſhall be lawful for the functions and duties of chief coiner and engraver to be performed by one perſon. The treaſurer ſhall receive from the chief coiner all the coins which ſhall have been ſtruck, and ſhall pay or deliver them to the perſons reſpectively to whom the ſame ought to be paid or delivered: he ſhall moreover receive and ſafely keep all monies which ſhall be for the uſe, maintenance and ſupport of the mint, and ſhall diſburſe the ſame upon warrants ſigned by the director.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted,* That every officer and clerk of the ſaid mint ſhall, before he enters upon the execution of his office, take an oath or affirmation before ſome judge of the united ſtates faithfully to perform the duties thereof.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted,* That the ſaid aſſayer, chief coiner and treaſurer, previous to entering upon the execution of their reſpective offices, ſhall each become bound to the united ſtates of America, with one or more ſureties to the ſatisfaction of the ſecretary of the treaſury, in the ſum of ten thouſand dollars, with condition for the faithful and diligent performance of the duties of his office.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted,* That there ſhall be allowed and paid as compenſations for their reſpective ſervices—To the ſaid director, a yearly ſalary of two thouſand dollars, to the ſaid aſſayer, a yearly ſalary of one thouſand five hundred dollars, to the ſaid chief coiner, a yearly ſalary of one thouſand five hundred dollars, to the ſaid engraver, a yearly ſalary of one thouſand two hundred dollars, to the ſaid treaſurer, a yearly ſalary of one thouſand two hundred dollars, to each clerk who may be employed, a yearly ſalary not exceeding five hundred dollars, and to the ſeveral ſubordinate workmen and ſervants ſuch wages and allowances as are cuſtomary and reaſonable, according to their reſpective ſtations and occupations.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the accounts of the officers and persons employed in and about the said mint, and for services performed in relation thereto, and all other accounts concerning the business and administration thereof, shall be adjusted and settled in the treasury department of the united states, and a quarterly account of the receipts and disbursements of the said mint shall be rendered at the said treasury for settlement according to such forms and regulations as shall have been prescribed by that department; and that once in each year a report of the transactions of the said mint, accompanied by an abstract of the settlements which shall have been from time to time made, duly certified by the comptroller of the treasury, shall be laid before congress for their information.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That in addition to the authority vested in the president of the united states by a resolution of the last session, touching the engaging of artists and the procuring of apparatus for the said mint, the president be authorized, and he is hereby authorized to cause to be provided and put in proper condition such buildings, and in such manner as shall appear to him requisite for the purpose of carrying on the business of the said mint; and that as well the expenses which shall have been incurred pursuant to the said resolution as those which may be incurred in providing and preparing the said buildings, and all other expenses which may hereafter accrue for the maintenance and support of the said mint, and in carrying on the business thereof, over and above the sums which may be received by reason of the rate per centum for coinage herein after mentioned, shall be defrayed from the treasury of the united states, out of any monies which from time to time shall be therein, not otherwise appropriated.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That there shall be from time to time struck and coined at the said mint, coins of gold, silver and copper, of the following denominations, values and descriptions, viz. EAGLES—each to be of the value of ten dollars or units, and to contain two hundred and forty seven grains and four eighths of a grain of pure, or two hundred and seventy grains of standard gold. HALF EAGLES—each to be of the value of five dollars, and to contain one hundred and twenty three grains and six eighths of a grain of pure, or one hundred and thirty five grains of standard gold. QUARTER EAGLES—each to be of the value of two dollars and a half dollar, and to contain sixty one grains and seven eighths of a grain of pure, or sixty seven grains and four eighths of a grain of standard gold. DOLLARS or UNITS—each to be of the value of a Spanish milled dollar as the same is now current, and to contain three hundred and seventy one grains and four sixteenth parts of a grain of pure, or four hundred and sixteen grains of standard silver. HALF DOLLARS—each to be of half the value of the dollar or unit, and to contain one hundred and eighty five grains and ten sixteenth parts of a grain of pure, or two hundred and eight grains of standard silver. QUARTER DOLLARS—each to be of one fourth the value of the dollar or unit, and to contain ninety two grains and thirteen sixteenth parts of a grain of pure, or one hundred and four grains of standard silver. DISMES—each to be of the value of one tenth of a dollar or unit, and to contain thirty seven grains and two sixteenth parts of a grain of pure, or forty one grains and three fifth parts of a grain of standard silver. HALF DISMES—each to be of the value of one twentieth of a dollar, and to contain eighteen grains and nine sixteenth parts of a grain of pure, or twenty grains and four fifth parts of a grain of standard silver. CENTS—each to be of the value of the one hundredth part of a dollar, and to contain eleven penny-weights of copper. HALF CENTS—each to be of the value of half a cent, and to contain five penny-weights and half a penny-weight of copper.

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That upon the said coins respectively there shall be the following devices and legends, namely: Upon one side of each of the said coins there shall be an impression emblematic of liberty, with an inscription of the word Liberty, and the year of the coinage; and upon the reverse of each of the gold and silver coins there shall be the figure or representation of an eagle, with this inscription, "UNITED STATES OF AMERICA," and upon the reverse of each of the copper coins, there shall be an inscription which shall express the denomination of the piece, namely cent or half cent, as the case may require.

Sec. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That the proportional value of gold to silver in all coins which shall by law be current as money within the united states, shall be as fifteen to one, according to quantity in weight, of pure gold or pure silver; that is to say, every fifteen pounds weight of pure silver shall be of equal value in all payments

with one pound weight of pure gold, and ſo in proportion as to any greater or leſs quantities of the reſpective metals.

Sec. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That the ſtandard for all gold coins of the united ſtates, ſhall be eleven parts fine to one part alloy; and accordingly that eleven parts in twelve of the entire weight of each of the ſaid coins ſhall conſiſt of pure gold, and the remaining one twelfth part of alloy; and the ſaid alloy ſhall be compoſed of ſilver and copper, in ſuch proportions not exceeding one half ſilver as ſhall be found convenient; to be regulated by the director of the mint, for the time being, with the approbation of the preſident of the united ſtates, until further proviſion ſhall be made by law. And to the end that the neceſſary information may be had in order to the making of ſuch further proviſion, it ſhall be the duty of the director of the mint, at the expiration of a year after commencing the operations of the ſaid mint, to report to congreſs the practice thereof during the ſaid year, touching the compoſition of the alloy of the ſaid gold coins, the reaſons for ſuch practice, and the experiments and obſervations which ſhall have been made concerning the effects of different proportions of ſilver and copper in the ſaid alloy.

Sec. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That the ſtandard for all ſilver coins of the united ſtates, ſhall be one thouſand four hundred and eighty five parts fine to one hundred and ſeventy nine parts alloy; and accordingly that one thouſand four hundred and eighty five parts in one thouſand ſix hundred and ſixty four parts of the entire weight of each of the ſaid coins ſhall conſiſt of pure ſilver, and the remaining one hundred and ſeventy nine parts of alloy; which alloy ſhall be wholly of copper.

Sec. 14. *And be it further enacted*, That it ſhall be lawful for any perſon or perſons to bring to the ſaid mint gold and ſilver bullion, in order to their being coined; and that the bullion ſo brought ſhall be there aſſayed and coined as ſpeedily as may be after the receipt thereof, and that free of expenſe to the perſon or perſons by whom the ſame ſhall have been brought. And as ſoon as the ſaid bullion ſhall have been coined, the perſon or perſons by whom the ſame ſhall have been delivered, ſhall upon demand receive in lieu thereof, coins, of the ſame ſpecies of bullion which ſhall have been ſo delivered, weight for weight, of the pure gold or pure ſilver therein contained: *Provided nevertheleſs*, That it ſhall be at the mutual option of the party or parties bringing ſuch bullion, and of the director of the ſaid mint, to make an immediate exchange of coins for ſtandard bullion, with a deduction of one half per cent from the weight of the pure gold, or pure ſilver contained in the ſaid bullion, as an indemnification to the mint for the time which will neceſſarily be required for coining the ſaid bullion, and for the advance which ſhall have been ſo made in coins. And it ſhall be the duty of the ſecretary of the treaſury to furniſh the ſaid mint from time to time whenever the ſtate of the treaſury will admit thereof, with ſuch ſums as may be neceſſary for effecting the ſaid exchanges, to be replaced as ſpeedily as may be out of the coins which ſhall have been made of the bullion for which the monies ſo furniſhed ſhall have been exchanged; and the ſaid deduction of one half per cent ſhall conſtitute a fund towards defraying the expenſes of the ſaid mint.

Sec. 15. *And be it further enacted*, That the bullion which ſhall be brought as aforeſaid to the mint to be coined, ſhall be coined, and the equivalent thereof in coins rendered, if demanded, in the order in which the ſaid bullion ſhall have been brought or delivered, giving priority according to priority of delivery only, and without preference to any perſon or perſons; and if any preference ſhall be given contrary to the direction aforeſaid, the officer by whom ſuch undue preference ſhall be given, ſhall in each caſe forfeit and pay one thouſand dollars; to be recovered with coſts of ſuit. And to the end that it may be known if ſuch preference ſhall at any time be given, the aſſayer or officer to whom the ſaid bullion ſhall be delivered to be coined, ſhall give to the perſon or perſons bringing the ſame, a memorandum in writing under his hand, denoting the weight, fineneſs and value thereof, together with the day and order of its delivery into the mint.

Sec. 16. *And be it further enacted*, That all the gold and ſilver coins which ſhall have been ſtruck at, and iſſued from the ſaid mint, ſhall be a lawful tender in all payments whatſoever, thoſe of full weight according to the reſpective values herein before declared, and thoſe of leſs than full weight at values proportional to their reſpective weights.

Sec. 17. *And be it further enacted*, That it ſhall be the duty of the reſpective officers of the ſaid mint, carefully and faithfully to uſe their beſt endeavours that all the gold

and ſilver coins which ſhall be ſtruck at the ſaid mint ſhall be, as nearly as may be, conformable to the ſeveral ſtandards and weights aforeſaid, and that the copper whereof the cents and half cents aforeſaid may be compoſed, ſhall be of good quality.

Sec. 18. And the better to ſecure a due conformity of the ſaid gold and ſilver coins to their reſpective ſtandards, *Be it further enacted*, That from every ſeparate maſs of ſtandard gold or ſilver, which ſhall be made into coins at the ſaid mint, there ſhall be taken, ſet apart by the treaſurer, and reſerved in his cuſtody a certain number of pieces, not leſs than three, and that once in every year the pieces ſo ſet apart and reſerved, ſhall be aſſayed under the inſpection of the chief juſtice of the united ſtates, the ſecretary and comptroller of the treaſury, the ſecretary for the department of ſtate, and the attorney general of the united ſtates (who are hereby required to attend for that purpoſe at the ſaid mint, on the laſt monday in July in each year) or under the inſpection of any three of them, in ſuch manner as they or a majority of them ſhall direct, and in the preſence of the director, aſſayer, and chief coiner of the ſaid mint; and if it ſhall be found that the gold and ſilver ſo aſſayed, ſhall not be inferior to their reſpective ſtandards herein before declared more than one part in one hundred and forty four parts, the officer or officers of the ſaid mint whom it may concern ſhall be held excuſable; but if any greater inferiority ſhall appear, it ſhall be certified to the preſident of the united ſtates, and the ſaid officer or officers ſhall be deemed diſqualified to hold their reſpective offices.

Sec. 19. *And be it further enacted*, That if any of the gold or ſilver coins which ſhall be ſtruck or coined at the ſaid mint ſhall be debaſed or made worſe as to the proportion of fine gold or fine ſilver therein contained, or ſhall be of leſs weight or value than the ſame ought to be purſuant to the directions of this act, through the default or with the connivance of any of the officers or perſons who ſhall be employed at the ſaid mint, for the purpoſe of profit or gain, or otherwiſe with a fraudulent intent, and if any of the ſaid officers or perſons ſhall embezzle any of the metals which ſhall at any time be committed to their charge for the purpoſe of being coined, or any of the coins which ſhall be ſtruck or coined at the ſaid mint, every ſuch officer or perſon who ſhall commit any or either of the ſaid offences, ſhall be deemed guilty of felony, and ſhall ſuffer death.

Sec. 20. *And be it further enacted*, That the money of account of the united ſtates ſhall be expreſſed in dollars or units, diſmes or tenths, cents or hundredths, and milles or thouſandths, a diſme being the tenth part of a dollar, a cent the hundredth part of a dollar, a mille the thouſandth part of a dollar, and that all accounts in the public offices and all proceedings in the courts of the united ſtates ſhall be kept and had in conformity to this regulation.

Approved, April 2, 1792.

An Act ſupplementary to the Act for the eſtabliſhment and ſupport of Light-houſes, Beacons, Buoys, and Public Piers.

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That all expenſes which ſhall accrue from the firſt day of July next, incluſively, for the neceſſary ſupport, maintenance, and repairs of all light-houſes, beacons, buoys, the ſtakeage of channels, on the ſea-coaſt, and public piers, ſhall continue to be defrayed by the united ſtates, until the firſt day of July, in the year one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-three, notwithſtanding ſuch light-houſes, beacons, or public piers, with the lands and tenements thereunto belonging, and the juriſdiction of the ſame, ſhall not in the mean time be ceded to, or veſted in the united ſtates, by the ſtate or ſtates reſpectively, in which the ſame may be, and that the ſaid time be further allowed, to the ſtates reſpectively, to make ſuch ceſſion.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the ſecretary of the treaſury be authorized to cauſe to be provided, erected, and placed, a floating beacon, and as many buoys as may be neceſſary for the ſecurity of navigation, at, and near the entrance of the harbor of Charleſton, in the ſtate of South-Carolina. And alſo to have affixed three floating beacons in the bay of Cheſapeak; one at the north end of Willoughby's ſpit, another at the tail of the Horſe-Shoe; and the third on the ſhoaleſt place of the middle ground.

Approved, April 12, 1792.

An Act to erect a Light-house on Montok Point in the state of New-York.

BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled, That as soon as the jurisdiction of such land on Montok point, in the state of New-York, as the president of the united states shall deem sufficient and most proper for the convenience and accommodation of a light-house, shall have been ceded to the united states, it shall be the duty of the secretary of the treasury, to provide by contract, which shall be approved by the president of the united states, for building a light-house thereon, and for furnishing the same with all necessary supplies, and also to agree for the salaries or wages of the person or persons who may be appointed by the president for the superintendance and care of the same; and the president is hereby authorized to make the said appointments. That the number and disposition of the lights in the said light-house shall be such as may tend to distinguish it from others, and as far as is practicable, prevent mistakes.

Approved, April 12, 1792.

An Act for ascertaining the bounds of a tract of land purchased by John Cleves Symmes.

BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled, That the president of the united states be and he hereby is authorized at the request of John Cleves Symmes or his agent or agents, to alter the contract made between the late board of treasury and the said John Cleves Symmes for the sale of a tract of land of one million of acres, in such manner that the said tract may extend from the mouth of the Great Miami, to the mouth of the Little Miami, and be bounded by the river Ohio on the south, by the Great Miami on the west, by the Little Miami on the east, and by a parallel of latitude on the north, extending from the Great Miami to the Little Miami, so as to comprehend the proposed quantity of one million of acres, provided that the northern limits of the said tract shall not interfere with the boundary line established by the treaty of fort Harmar, between the united states and the Indian nations, and provided also that the president reserve to the united states, such lands at and near fort Washington as he may think necessary for the accommodation of a garrison at that fort.

Approved, April 12, 1792.

An Act for fixing the Compensations of the Doorkeepers of the Senate and House of Representatives in Congress.

BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled, That from and after the termination of the present session of congress, the doorkeepers of the senate and house of representatives, shall each be allowed a salary of five hundred dollars per annum, in full compensation for their services in the said offices; and that the assistant doorkeeper to each house shall be allowed, in full compensation for all his services, the sum of four hundred and fifty dollars per annum. And it shall be the duty of the said doorkeepers to do the usual services pertaining to their respective offices during the session of congress, and in the recess, under the direction of the secretary of the senate and clerk of the house representatives, to take care of the apartments occupied by the respective houses, and provide fuel and other accommodations for their subsequent session. And the said compensations shall be certified and paid in like manner as is provided by law, for the other officers of the senate and house of representatives.

Approved, April 12. 1792

An Act for altering the times of holding the Circuit Courts, in certain districts of the United States, and for other purposes.

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled,* That from and after the passing of this act the circuit courts in the districts of North Carolina and Georgia shall be held as follows, to wit: in the district of North-Carolina on the first day of June and the thirtieth day of November at Newbern in the present and each succeeding year. And all writs and recognizances

returnable and ſuits and other proceedings that were continued to the circuit court for the diſtrict of North-Carolina on the eighteenth day of June next ſhall now be returned and held continued to the ſame court on the firſt day of June next. In the diſtrict of Georgia on the twenty fifth day of April at Savannah and on the eighth day of November at Auguſta in the preſent and each ſucceeding year except when any of thoſe days ſhall happen on a ſunday in which caſe the court ſhall be held on the monday following.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the ſeſſions of the circuit courts in the eaſtern circuit ſhall in the preſent and every ſucceeding year commence at the times following, that is to ſay, in New-York diſtrict on the fifth day of April and the fifth day of September. In Connecticut diſtrict on the twenty-fifth day of April and the twenty-fifth day of September. In Maſſachuſetts diſtrict on the twelfth day of May and the twelfth day of October. In New-Hampſhire diſtrict on the twenty-fourth day of May and the twenty-fourth day of October and in Rhode-Iſland diſtrict on the ſeventh day of June and the ſeventh day of November except when any of thoſe days ſhall happen on a ſunday and then the ſeſſions ſhall commence on the next day following. And the ſeſſions of the circuit court ſhall be held in the diſtrict of Virginia at the city of Richmond only. In New-Hampſhire diſtrict at Portſmouth and Exeter alternately, beginning at the firſt. In Maſſachuſetts diſtrict at Boſton. In Rhode-Iſland diſtrict at New-Port and Providence alternately, beginning at the firſt. In Connecticut diſtrict at Hartford and New Haven alternately, beginning at the laſt. And in New-York diſtrict at the city of New-York only.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That at each ſeſſion of the ſupreme court of the united ſtates or as ſoon after as may be, the judges of the ſupreme court attending at ſuch ſeſſion ſhall in writing ſubſcribed with their names (which writing ſhall be lodged with the clerk of the ſupreme court and ſafely kept in his office) aſſign to the ſaid judges reſpectively the circuits which they are to attend at the enſuing ſeſſions of the circuit courts; which aſſignment ſhall be made in ſuch manner that no judge, unleſs by his own conſent, ſhall have aſſigned to him any circuit which he hath already attended until the ſame hath been afterwards attended by every other of the ſaid judges. *Provided always*, that if the public ſervice or the convenience of the judges ſhall at any time, in their opinion, require a different arrangement, the ſame may take place with the conſent of any four of the judges of the ſupreme court.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the diſtrict court for the diſtrict of Maine, which by the act entituled "An act to eſtabliſh the judicial courts of the united ſtates," is holden on the firſt Tueſday of June, annually, at Portland, ſhall, from and after the paſſing of this act, be holden on the third Tueſday in June, annually, any thing in the act aforeſaid to the contrary notwithſtanding: and all writs and recognizance returnable and ſuits and other proceedings that were continued to the diſtrict court for the diſtrict of Maine on the firſt Tueſday of June next, ſhall now be returnable and held continued to the ſame court, on the third Tueſday of June next.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That the ſtated diſtrict courts for the diſtrict of North-Carolina, ſhall in future, be held at the towns of Newbern, Wilmington, and Edenton in rotation beginning at Newbern, as the ſaid court now ſtands adjourned.

Approved, April 13. 1792.

An Act to compenſate the corporation of Truſtees of the public Grammar-ſchool and Academy of Wilmington in the ſtate of Delaware, for the occupation of, and damages done to the ſaid School, during the late war.

BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled, That as an indemnification to the corporation of truſtees of the public grammar-ſchool and academy of Wilmington in the ſtate of Delaware, for the uſe and occupation of the ſaid ſchool, and the damages done to the ſame by the troops of the united ſtates, during the late war, there be granted to the ſaid corporation of truſtees, a reaſonable compenſation, payable out of any unappropriated money in the treaſury of the united ſtates, which compenſation ſhall be aſcertained by the accounting officers of the treaſury.

Approved, April 13. 1792.

THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR AUGUST, 1792.

BY A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

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PHILADELPHIA:

PRINTED FOR THE PROPRIETORS, BY *WILLIAM YOUNG*, BOOKSELLER, No. 52, SECOND-STREET, THE CORNER OF CHE[illegible]T-STREET.

MEMOIRS *of a singular character* are not calculated to answer any useful end, that we can perceive. We believe the *singular* character drawn by our correspondent to be the offspring of his own imagination. Such a compound of contradictions and absurdities is surely not in nature.

Flavia's proposed tax on old bachelors, would perhaps be found ineffectual for the promotion of early marriages. To encourage these, inducements ought to be held out; and not penalties inflicted. Besides, it is cruel to increase the miseries of those, who are almost universally acknowledged to be the most wretched of mankind.—If celibacy carries its own punishment with it, why would our fair correspondent be so vindictive as to add to this punishment? Few, we apprehend, are so far divested of the feelings of nature, as to prefer a single life; unless they have cogent reasons, indeed, for so doing. If these reasons be well founded, (as they sometimes are) no censure is due; and if imaginary, those who are influenced by them, deserve to be considered as objects of pity, rather than of punishment.—If *Flavia* writes from chagrin, or disappointment, let her reflect whether the fault be not, in some degree, her own. It is not very uncommon for young ladies to be so vain of their supposed accomplishments, or *personal* beauty, (ladies of good sense are out of the question) as to think themselves too good for gentlemen, with whom they might enjoy connubial happiness; and to indulge very unreasonable expectations of grandeur, &c.—It is a sad thing, when the bloom of youth is gone, to be left to repent of this mistaken conduct.—Observation has furnished us with one fact, which we shall take the liberty of mentioning, for the sake of our young female readers, but without any remarks on its physical cause.—We have found that female beauty generally fades in America, at a much earlier age than in more temperate and equable climates; and that unmarried ladies are commonly afflicted with a dreadful train of maladies, which sometimes commence before the twenty-fifth year. The best preservative, both of female health and beauty, is a prudent and early marriage.—We would willingly hope that this information does not come too late for our fair correspondent.

The Dog-Star, a poem, is neither poetry nor prose.

Elegy on a lap-dog, by *Maria*—inadmissible—Peace to his *manes*; and consolation, and a more rational companion, to his mistress.

PHILADELPHIA, *August* 31, 1792.

Current Prices of PUBLIC SECURITIES.

Six per cents, per £. - -	22*s.*	*Bank U. S. whole shares per cent advance*	50.
Deferred six per cents, - -	13/4.	*Bank of N. America do. do.*	30.
Three per cents, - - -	12/9.		

COURSE *of* EXCHANGE.

Bills of Exchange on London,	90 *days,*	69.	*Amsterdam,* 60 *days, per guilder,*		3*s.*
Ditto.	60 *days,*	70.	*Ditto.* 90 *days,*		2/11.
Ditto.	30 *days,*	72½			

THE
UNIVERSAL ASYLUM,
AND
Columbian Magazine,
FOR AUGUST, 1792.

On the EXCLUSION *of* MINISTERS *of* RELIGION *from* CIVIL OFFICES.

THE queſtion relating to a conſtitutional excluſion of the miniſters of religion from civil offices, is a very ſerious one, as it affects a reſpectable and venerable order of citizens, and ſtill more important, as it involves certain fundamental principles of government.

The American conſtitutions have taken different ſides of the queſtion; even thoſe of lateſt date, and therefore the reſult of the fulleſt and cleareſt information, are in oppoſition to each other thereupon. Thoſe who argue for the diſqualification of the clergy ſay, 1ſt. That religious duties afford ſufficient employment, and are of a nature not to aſſort with the buſtle of political ſcenes; and therefore the miniſters of the altar ſhould not only live by the altar, but remain at the altar. 2dly. That, if eligible to public offices, their influence over the people will give them an undue advantage over other candidates, and by degrees throw all power into their hands, which would be neither prudent nor ſafe. 3dly. That when they enjoy particular emoluments or exemptions under the law, it is but right and juſt that theſe ſhould be balanced by particular legal diſqualifications and diſadvantages; otherwiſe this claſs of citizens would not be on a level with the reſt.

Now the firſt argument cannot be allowed the leaſt weight in the queſtion. It may be very proper for the conſideration both of the paſtor and the flock, but is a matter to be decided by them alone. The ſecond argument falls under a ſimilar obſervation. If the people are pleaſed to ſend the man who inſtructs them in their religious duties, to manage their other concerns alſo, and he is willing to undertake the ſervice, on what principle can either be disfranchiſed of their common right? on no principle whatever, that would not authoriſe a like diſqualification of any other profeſſion, or calling in

life, till the right of chooſing and being choſen ſhould be narrowed down to a rank ariſtocracy. The third argument has weight, but inſtead of being turned againſt the right of ſuch diſqualifications, it lies againſt the wrong of ſuch exemptions. Thoſe who enjoy peculiar privileges under the law, may fairly be ſubjected by the law to peculiar diſabilities.—And as it would be an injury to them to impoſe the latter without the former; ſo to grant them the former without the latter, would be equally an injury to all others. When it is conſidered that religion is not an object of political regulation, and that the rights of conſcience are, from their nature, as well as by moſt of the declarations of rights, excepted out of the juriſdiction of the civil magiſtrate, too much care cannot be taken to keep government and religion ſeparate and diſtinct. And it ſeems not to have been duly conſidered, by the conſtitutions which impoſe theſe civil diſqualifications, and which probably did not mean to violate their principle of religious liberty, that they pave the way therefor as much by beginning with the diſqualifications, as if they had begun, on the other ſide, with particular favours and exemptions. For there is the ſame interference of the civil power on account of religion, in the one caſe as in the other; and on whichever ſide the government interferes, its interference on the other follows of courſe. Juſtice pleads for it. Privileges authoriſe diſabilities, and diſabilities lead to privileges; till at length the miniſters of religion are eſtabliſhed into a political order in the ſtate; the magiſtrate is clothed with complete juriſdiction over it; and religion is turned into a mere engine of civil government. Let the miniſters of religion then be conſidered by civil ſociety merely as members of civil ſociety. Let them claim no privilege not common to all other citizens; and let other citizens impoſe no burden whatever not common to themſelves. This is the only juſt and ſafe way in which this queſtion can be decided.

Philadelphia, Auguſt 8, 1792.

On Banking Companies *in the* United States.

TO arreſt the progreſs of error in its paſſage, and to throw light on ſubjects not commonly underſtood, however laborious a taſk it may ſeem to an author, ought ſurely to compenſate him, by the ſuavity of feelings with which it is attended, and the general good that ſometimes enſues; nor ought he to be diſcouraged by the malevolent aſperſions of the deſigning, or the ſtill more ſubtle management of the intereſted, from purſuing the thread of enquiries evidently tending to objects of conſiderable public utility.

It is but a little time ſince banks were frequently to be met with in this country; and but a very ſhort one ſince the experiment of having more than one in one place has been tried: until it was tried here, many vain and miſtaken theories were ſported about it, in ſpite of the plaineſt reaſon, which proved that banks, as any other

ſhops, might be multiplied to any given number, without danger to the public, while they were conducted with prudence, and their buſineſs confined within proper bounds, compared with their capital—without which, their exiſtence muſt, of neceſſity, be ſhort.

The experiment, however, has been fairly made, and two banks actually exiſt not only at Philadelphia, but at Charleſton, at Baltimore, at New-York, and at Boſton—to ſay nothing of thoſe erected at Albany, at Hartford, at Providence, and the branch meditated at Richmond; ſurely their number has fully confuted the ideas of thoſe, who romantically thought one bank and its branches, alone ſufficient for the union, and that, placed as it was under the wings of the government, none other could ſtand in competition with it.

And now ſome are complaining of theſe numerous inſtitutions as great evils, from which, they apprehend, that too much paper money will iſſue—when the fact is, that ſo many banks will rather limit this circulation, by dividing it into ſo many parts as to render it unſafe for any bank to exceed the prudent limits of its capital: for how can any bank ſafely venture itſelf to treſpaſs on this great line of right conduct, when it knows not the hour at which its forces may be put to the teſt;—each bank, therefore, is left in ſociety, as each individual is and ought to be, to ſtand or fall by the prudence and wiſdom of the management of its own concerns.

In every community there is, and muſt be from its nature, a demand for a certain quantity of current money—this is ſupplied either by the precious metals or by the bank paper; neither can be extended beyond that certain demand which I have preſuppoſed. The chief diſadvantage ſuſtained by a nation from banks is, that this demand, which would, in its natural order, have been filled up by ſpecie, becomes chiefly ſupplied by paper, which, reſting only on commercial credit, is liable to be ſhaken with it; but it is certainly a mighty ſecurity for a public, that this bank paper be ſupplied by various inſtitutions, on various capitals, becauſe the ſolidity of it becomes more apparent; juſt as it appears to be better for a man in trade to have his common book debts due from numbers of good people, rather than from only one debtor, who, however ſafe he might be ſuppoſed, might wholly ruin him in caſe of accident.

The only ill conſequence ariſing from the multiplication of banks is to the ſtockholders, whoſe profits may be leſſened by it: but what are theſe ſtockholders to the body of the nation who are benefitted? —The nation is benefitted, not by monopoly, but by a general diffuſion of the profits of banking, as of any other trade, among the greater number; and the bank itſelf is benefitted by the competition that forms the only operative check upon its directors; inſtead of twelve directors, as formerly, we have now perhaps thirty in the city;—ſo knowledge is extended on an abſtruſe ſubject, and impartiality more effectually ſecured in the adminiſtration.

In no country have monopolies worked good, but to a few intereſted in conducting them; the Eaſt-India company of England, to whom was granted the excluſive privilege of navigating for Great-Britain, in all ſeas beyond the Cape of Good-Hope—that Eaſt-India company that waged war and maintained armies, that plundered provinces and de-

throned nabobs ; amid the ſplendour of their conqueſts, or the brilliancy of their atchievements, paid but the pittance of 6 to 8 per cent to their ſtockholders, and contracted debts of eight millions, which they will kindly leave to aftertimes to diſcharge ; but in the mean time they have created nabobs at home, and, tho' poor themſelves, have enabled their ſervants to purchaſe ſeats in parliament, and extend the tide of national corruption ; while the farce and pageantry of ſtate trials have been held upon delinquents, at an expenſe, it is ſaid, already, in a ſingle inſtance, of upwards of thirty thouſand guineas to the public. Who, that conſiders theſe things, but muſt deprecate MONOPOLIES, as among the foreſt evils that have fallen to the lot of countries, or of men to ſuſtain !

RUSSELL.

Philadelphia, Auguſt, 1792.

On the INCONVENIENCE *and* IMPROPRIETY *of the* OFFICIAL ROBES *worn by the* JUDGES *of the* UNITED STATES.

HAVING by accident chanced the other day to walk by the court-houſe, and obſerving a crowd at the door, I was tempted to enter for an inſtant, to ſee what was the object of attention, when I was ſurpriſed at my going in, to behold upon the judicial ſeats, ſix gentlemen, arrayed in a robe as unſuitable to the ſeaſon, as it was new in point of faſhion. I was for ſome time at a loſs to diſcover the kind of dreſs they had on, till, on a nearer approach, I found it to be of ſcarlet, trimmed with ermine. Such a dreſs in Auguſt was truly ſurpriſing, for in point of convenience it muſt be extremely oppreſſive, and in point of ſhew or appearance it certainly was much leſs ſolemn and decorous, than the black coats, till lately always obſerved on thoſe ſeats.

The dreſs, I have been told, is borrowed from a country we are but too ambitious to copy, though we were lately ſo fond of diſdaining. I am ſorry our judges ſhould have imitated an example originating, probably, in barbarous times, and probably preſerved only in England, on account of its antiquity. But if our judicial concerns could not be carried on without a decoration ſo extraordinary, why not take the whole of it ? The wig of long tails and curls, as well as the gown ?—for the *tout enſemble* ought to have gone together, if taken at all ;—the effect being now to give a very ſmall appearance to the head, compared to the ermined ſhoulders ; and this effect is ſuch, as to deſtroy totally whatever ſolemnity might have been conceived to reſide formerly in this *toga judicis.*

But is it indeed in this enlightened age, in the eighteenth century, that we can expect dreſs to go for any thing in the popular eſtimation? —Alas, as Mr. Burke obſerves, the age of chivalry is gone, and with it are departed that ſanctity annexed to exterior veſtments, which were often ſo ill ſuited to their wearers.—No, it is law, ſound

judgment, and impartial justice alone, that can dignify those seats, and these would have had their sway in the common dress—

" Worth makes the man, and want of it the fellow,
" All else is nought but leather or prunella"

So Pope thought formerly, nor is the doctrine lessened in repute by the prevailing tide of modern politics.

I would not be understood, by what I have said, in the least to wish to lessen the respect which I really feel for these gentlemen, and which is essential to the due execution of the laws. But seeing the constitution of the united states has not warranted any distinctions of dress, used in regal courts, to be adopted in our own; but, on the contrary, forbids expressly, by its spirit, the introduction of orders of nobility, so connected with distinctions of dress: Seeing, also, our amiable president does not assume the royal robes, at his levees, to which he has, at least, as much apparent right; I have not been able to forbear these strictures;—meaning always to oppose them to every novelty, which appears to me calculated to alter the habits of our plain republican system.

RUSSELL.

Philadelphia, August, 1792.

On PUBLIC SPEAKING.

[*By the late* F. Hopkinson, *Esq.*]

TO speak in public, with propriety and effect, requires many talents, natural and acquired. The object of all public speaking is *persuasion;* to make other people believe or act according to the speaker's mind. For this purpose, it is necessary that the orator should have a *pleasing address, a lively imagination, a thorough knowledge of his subject, and a good ear,* with respect to the language in which he ~~is to~~ deliver his sentiments.

First impressions have an unavoidable influence on the mind. The most judicious and impartial hearers conceive some predilection for, or prejudice against the speaker, on his very first appearance. It is, therefore, of great importance, that a genteel manner, and graceful address, should bespeak the favourable attention of the audience; otherwise, the orator will not only have to encounter the difficulties incident to his subject, but must also labour against a foreign influence: whereas a genteel figure, a graceful deportment, and a pleasing address, sometimes operate in his favour, to greater advantage than all the force of his arguments; and, what is of infinite importance, he is sure of the good opinion of the ladies.

A lively imagination will enable the orator to throw an air of novelty over his subject, and to present it in points of view in which it hath not frequently been considered; to enforce his arguments with apt allusions, and embellish the whole with striking metaphors. To hear a dull and hackneyed subject elaborately discussed, by a dull and phlegmatic speaker, affords about as much entertainment, as to hear

a demonſtration from Euclid, proving a propoſition which cannot be denied; or a ſtring of logical ſyllogiſms, proving nothing at all.

A thorough knowledge of his ſubject, I have laid down as the next requiſite in a public ſpeaker. This, I confeſs, is not abſolutely neceſſary; as there are many who make a very tolerable figure without it. It might indeed, be extremely inconvenient to make this rule ſtrict and general, inaſmuch as there would be danger of ſilencing one third of the gentlemen of the bar; one half of the orators of the pulpit; and three fourths of the ſpeakers in parliaments and houſes of aſſembly: yet it ſeems but reaſonable, that an author ſhould have ſome knowledge of the ſubject he is handling, and, therefore, this rule is rather recommended than inſiſted upon.

A good ear is the laſt mentioned, though not the leaſt important qualification of a good ſpeaker. If his language is pure, his periods harmoniouſly arranged, and his voice melodiouſly adapted to the conſtruction of every ſentence, the orator will not fail to charm his hearers, even though there ſhould be but a very ſcanty portion of ſolid ſenſe diluted in his flowing rhetoric. The mind is inſenſibly captivated by pleaſing ſounds, and the moſt obdurate judgment yields to the magic influence of ſweet harmony. It is, therefore, abſolutely neceſſary that authors of little ſenſe ſhould pay great attention to the powers of ſound; for every hearer expects to be either inſtructed or pleaſed; and he has a right to expect it.

It is next to impoſſible to lay down rules for harmonious compoſition. When words and ſentences are ſo arranged, as to produce a pleaſing melody, all acknowledge the effect, but none can point out that particular conſtruction in which the magic conſiſts. Grammar-rules have nothing to do with it; for a ſentence may be ſtrictly grammatical, and yet as offenſive to the ear as the ſharpening of a ſaw. For inſtance, obſerve the contraſt between the two following ſentences; both of which are equally unexceptionable in point of grammar.

"Some have a happy talent of expreſſion, whereby they compenſate the want of ſentiment, by the melody of their ſtyle; their language ever flowing like a wave of the ſea, and their periods cloſing in ſuch muſical cadence, that the ear is faſcinated by the magic of ſound, and the mind lulled in a pleaſing repoſe."

"Others, without giving to grammar-rules offence, ſhall arrange ſo unſkilfully their words, breaking, as it were, and interrupting the ſenſe, or rather nonſenſe, they mean to inculcate, by frequent (and oft-times unneceſſary) parentheſes, that the ear ſtumbles through the rugged paragraph, as the feet would ſtumble in ſcrambling through a ſtreet, when the pavement had been broken up, over bricks, ſtones, and poſts, mixed together confuſedly."

A fine ſpeech, like a fine lady, enforces attention, and captivates the heart. When it deſcribes pleaſing objects, it is beautiful nature, dreſſed by the graces; when it ſoars in the ſublime, it elevates the ſoul, and animates the nobler paſſions: it gives to perſuaſion irreſiſtible force, and bids the tear of pity fall, like the dew of heaven—gently fall—on virtue in diſtreſs.

HISTORY *of the* AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

(Continued from our last—page 16.)

1779. THIS campaign, however barren of important events, was diſtinguiſhed by one of the moſt gallant enterpriſes that occurs in the whole hiſtory of the war. This was the ſtorming of Stoney-point, by the Americans. General Wayne, who conducted this daring enterpriſe, was furniſhed with a choſen body of infantry, at the head of which he ſet out from Sandy-bank, fourteen miles from Stoney-point, on the 15th of July, about noon; and, after a fatiguing march, over very bad roads, arrived within a mile and an half of his object, at eight o'clock in the evening. Here the men were formed into columns, and halted, while general Wayne, with a few of his officers, went to reconnoitre the works, and to obſerve the ſituation of the garriſon. At half after eleven, the whole detachment moved on to the aſſault, in two columns; the general having iſſued the moſt pointed orders, to both, not to fire a ſhot, on any account; but to place their reliance entirely upon the bayonet. It was not unworthy of obſervation, that a weapon, which had been ſo often fatally employed againſt the Americans, on ſimilar occaſions, and particularly againſt general Wayne himſelf, at the Paoli, was the only one uſed by them in this attack. General Wayne headed the right column; the van of which, conſiſting of 150 volunteers, with unloaded muſkets and fixed bayonets, was commanded by lieut. col. Fleury. The van of the left conſiſted of 100 volunteers, with unloaded muſkets and fixed bayonets, and was commanded by major Stewart. Each was preceded by a forlorn hope, of twenty choſen men, with an officer of the moſt diſtinguiſhed bravery. Theſe were particularly directed to remove the abbatis, and other obſtructions. The two columns directed their attacks to oppoſite points of the works, while a feint was made in front, to divide the attention of the garriſon. The approaches proved to be much more difficult than had been apprehended; the works being defended by a deep moraſs, which was at that time overflowed by the tide. But neither the moraſs, the formidable and double rows of abbatis, nor the ſtrong works in front and flank, could damp the ardour, or withſtand the fury of the aſſailants. In the face of an inceſſant and moſt tremendous fire of muſketry, and of cannon loaded with grape-ſhot, they forced their way, at the point of the bayonet, through every obſtacle, until both columns met in the centre, where they arrived at nearly the ſame inſtant.

General Wayne was wounded in the head by a muſket ball, as he paſſed the laſt abbatis, but inſiſted on being carried forward; adding, that if he died, he wiſhed it might be in the fort. Fleury had the honour of ſtriking the Britiſh ſtandard, with his own hand. Lieutenants Gibbons and Knox, who led the forlorn hope, eſcaped unhurt; although the former loſt ſeventeen men out of twenty, and the latter nearly as many.

There is scarcely any thing in the transactions of war, which affords more room for surprize, and is more difficult to be accounted for, than the prodigious disparity between the numbers slain in those different actions, which otherwise nearly correspond, in their principal circumstances, nature, and magnitude. Nothing could well be supposed, from its nature and circumstances, more bloody, in proportion to the numbers engaged, than this action; and yet the loss, on both sides, was moderate. The killed and wounded of the Americans, amounted to ninety eight. Of the garrison, sixty-three were killed, and five hundred and forty-three made prisoners. That so few of the enemy were killed, was owing to the clemency of the assailants. The cruel customs that war has established, with respect to nightly assaults, and the recent barbarities at Fairfield and Norwalk, would have furnished sufficient apology to the conquerors for putting the whole garrison to the sword; but they, no less generous than brave, scorned to take the lives of men calling for mercy, and ceased to destroy as soon as their adversaries ceased to resist.

Nothing could exceed the triumph of the Americans, upon the success of this enterprise, and the vigour and spirit with which it was conducted. And, indeed, considered in all its parts and difficulties, it would have done honour to the most experienced veterans. General Washington received the thanks of congress "for the vigilance, wisdom, and magnanimity with which he had conducted the military operations of the states; and which were, among many other signal instances, manifested in his orders for the enterprise against Stoney-point." They also passed a vote of thanks to general Wayne, for his brave, prudent, and soldierly conduct, in this spirited and well-conducted attack. They took honourable notice of col. Fleury and major Stewart; and warmly applauded lieutenants Gibbons and Knox. They ordered a medal, emblematical of the action, to be struck; one of gold to be presented to general Wayne, and one of silver to lieut. col. Fleury, and a singular mark of their approbation to major Stewart. To lieutenants Gibbons and Knox, and also to Mr. Archer, the general's volunteer aid-de-camp, they gave the rank of captain. At the same time, they passed resolutions in honour of the officers and men generally; and directed that the value of the military stores, taken at Stoney-point, should be ascertained, and divided among the troops by whom that garrison was reduced.

No sooner did this post fall into the hands of the Americans, than they turned its artillery against Verplanks-point, with such effect, that the shipping stationed there were forced to cut their cables, and fall down the river. But the possession of these two posts was an object of importance to the British. Accordingly preparations were immediately made, at New-York, to relieve the one, and to recover the other. To risk an engagement, for either or both of them, was not the intention of general Washington, who was in the uniform habit of weighing the probable consequences of every military transaction, and of adopting a cautious or enterprising line of conduct, as either seemed necessary, or appeared best calculated to promote the true interests of his country. He therefore evacuated Stoney-

point, after having removed the cannon and ſtores, and demoliſhed the works. The Britiſh regained poſſeſſion of it, on the third day after its capture.

Shortly after this ſucceſsful enterpriſe, the execution of another, which equalled it in boldneſs of deſign, was committed to major Lee, who was furniſhed with a detachment of 350 men, chiefly of the Virginia line. The plan was to ſurpriſe the Britiſh garriſon at Powles-hook, oppoſite to New-York; not ſo much with a view to any great intrinſic advantage, that could ariſe from the ſucceſs of the enterpriſe, as for the purpoſe of throwing a luſtre upon the American arms, and thereby elating the public mind, and rouſing the people into activity; an object of the utmoſt importance, in every ſtage of the war, inaſmuch as every thing depended upon the ſpirited exertions of the great maſs of citizens. Should the undertaking appear too hazardous, either in the execution, or in the difficulty of effecting a retreat afterwards, major Lee was left at liberty to abandon it. On the morning of the 19th of July, before day-light, the fort was completely ſurpriſed. Major Sutherland, the commandant, and a number of Heſſians, favoured by the darkneſs, eſcaped to a ſmall block-houſe, near the fort; but with the loſs of thirty of his men killed, and 160 taken priſoners. The loſs of the Americans, in killed and wounded, was not more than about half a dozen. Major Lee, agreeably to his orders, retreated immediately, without waiting to deſtroy either the barracks or the artillery; a ſtep which the approach of day, and the vicinity of the enemy's main body, rendered abſolutely neceſſary. As a reward of his "prudence, addreſs, and bravery," major Lee was honoured with the thanks of congreſs, who alſo ordered a gold medal, emblematical of the event, to be ſtruck and preſented to him. They alſo applauded the good conduct of his troops, and ordered a conſiderable donative, in money, to be diſtributed among them.

Theſe advantages, however, were far from being an equivalent for the loſs ſoon after ſuſtained by the ſtate of Maſſachuſetts, in an unſucceſsful attempt to reduce a Britiſh poſt, on the bank of Penobſcot river, in the eaſtern confines of New-England. The fort was advantageouſly ſituated, and was commanded by col. Macleane, who, with a detachment of 650 men, arrived from Halifax, for the purpoſe of eſtabliſhing it, in the middle of June; in conſequence of directions for that purpoſe, from ſir Henry Clinton. This meaſure excited a conſiderable alarm at Boſton; and the moſt vigorous means were immediately adopted, for driving the enemy from their newly-eſtabliſhed poſt. That a ſufficient number of armed veſſels and tranſports, as well as ſeamen, might be ſpeedily obtained for an expedition againſt it, an embargo, for forty days, was laid by the government of Maſſachuſetts, on all their ſhipping. A conſiderable naval armament, conſiſting of eighteen armed veſſels, beſides tranſports, under the command of commodore Saltonſtall, was accordingly fitted out, with extraordinary expedition. The Warren frigate, which was the largeſt veſſel in this fleet, carried thirty-two guns, eighteen and twelve pounders. The others carried from twenty-four to twelve guns each. A body of troops, commanded by general Lovel, em-

barked on this expedition, and on the 25th of July, the fleet, conſiſting, in all of thirty-ſeven ſail, appeared off Penobſcot.

Col. Macleane had received information, four days before, of the intended expedition; and had therefore redoubled his exertions to ſtrengthen the works of the fort, which however, were ſtill far from being completed. The conduct of the Americans on this occaſion, does not appear to have been ſufficiently vigorous. Three days were employed in landing the troops, when Macleane was ſummoned to ſurrender; which being refuſed, two days more were conſumed in erecting a battery, at the diſtance of 750 yards from the fort. This dilatory proceeding, and an ineffectual cannonading for two weeks, afforded the garriſon an opportunity of ſtrengthening their works, which they induſtriouſly improved. They were now free from any apprehenſion, in caſe of an attempt to reduce the fort by ſtorm; a mode of attack which would probably have been attended with ſucceſs, had it been adopted by the Americans, immediately upon their arrival. The beſiegers finding that their cannonading made little or no impreſſion upon the works of the fort, were preparing for an aſſault, when ſir George Collier appeared full in view, with a ſquadron from New-York, for the relief of the garriſon. This ſquadron conſiſted of the Raiſonable, of ſixty-four guns, and five frigates. The American troops were ſpeedily re-embarked, and the fleet was drawn up, in form of a creſcent, acroſs the river, as if they were determined to diſpute the paſſage of the enemy's ſquadron; but no more was intended, than to gain time for the tranſports to move up the river, that the troops might be enabled to land, and make their eſcape. The ſuperior force of the Raiſonable was deemed irreſiſtable. A general flight on the one ſide, and a general chaſe on the other took place. The whole of the tranſports and armed veſſels were deſtroyed, two of the latter excepted; and theſe were captured by the Britiſh. Few ſingle towns have experienced ſuch a loſs of veſſels, at one time, as Boſton now ſuffered. The naval force employed in this expedition, whether conſidered with reſpect to ſhips or guns, was little, if at all inferior to the royal navy of England, at the beginning of queen Elizabeth's reign. After this diſaſter, the American ſoldiers and ſailors ſuſtained conſiderable hardſhip, in returning to their homes. They had to return a great part of their way by land, exploring their route through thick and unfrequented woods.—

Having detailed the moſt important military operations, which, in the courſe of the year 1779, occurred in the ſeveral ſtates, we ſhall now proceed to give a ſketch of Indian depredations on the frontiers, and of ſome expeditions which were undertaken againſt them.

Lieutenant-governour Hamilton, of Detroit, had, for ſome time, by means of preſents, rewards for ſcalps, &c. encouraged the Indians to diſtreſs the Americans, in the back parts of Virginia, and the neighbouring ſtates; and, with a view to more extenſive miſchief, had projected an expedition up the Ohio, as far as Fort-Pitt, ſweeping Kentuckey on the way. He was to have been joined by all the Cherokees, Chickaſaws, and other Indians, that could be procured; and that all things might be in readineſs for proſecuting the intended expedition, as ſoon as the ſeaſon of the year would permit, he took poſt

at St. Vincents in the winter. Deſtruction ſeemed to await the Virginia back ſettlers; but they were reſcued from danger, by the active and ſpirited conduct of col. Clarke. This enterpriſing officer, hearing that Hamilton had weakened his party, by detaching a number of his Indians againſt the frontier ſettlements reſolved to attack him, as the beſt expedient for baffling his expedition. After a troubleſome march of ſixteen days, in an inclement ſeaſon, through ſwamps, and acroſs deſart waſtes, col. Clarke, with 130 men, arrived unexpectedly at St. Vincents, on the 23d of February, and made an aſſault upon the town, which was immediately taken. He then beſieged the fort, which was ſurrendered by Hamilton next day. The garriſon, conſiſting of ſeventy-nine men, became priſoners of war, and the ſtores, which were conſiderable, fell into the hands of the Americans. In the mean time, a party of Hamilton's Indians returned, and were unexpectedly attacked, and routed, by a detachment of Clarke's men, who took nine of the Indians, and releaſed two priſoners. Clarke being informed that a convoy of Britiſh goods and proviſions was on the way from Detroit, detached a party of ſixty men, in armed boats, which met the enemy forty leagues up the river, and made prize of the whole; taking forty priſoners, and about 10,000*l.* worth of goods and proviſions. From Hamilton's papers, it appeared, that it had been uſual with him to ſend out Indian and tory ſcalping parties, under general orders to ſpare neither man, woman, nor child. This ſeaſonable and well-conducted expedition, fruſtrated the cruel plans of Hamilton and his ſavage emiſſaries, and prevented the frontier ſettlements from being deluged with the blood of the helpleſs inhabitants, as had been intended.

About the middle of April, col. Van Schaick, with fifty-five men, marched from Fort-Schuyler, to the Onondaga ſettlements, on Lake-Ontario, which he entirely laid waſte. He burned about fifty houſes, and a large quantity of grain; killed the horſes, and ſtock of every kind; and deſtroyed, or brought off, the whole of the arms and ammunition which fell in his way. Twelve Indians were killed, and thirty-four made priſoners. This expedition was performed without the loſs of a ſingle man, and in leſs than ſix days, though the diſtance, going and coming, was upwards of one hundred and eighty miles.

Towards the end of July, a mixed party, of about ninety Indians and white men, were led by Brandt, againſt the Miniſink ſettlement; where, beſides a number of dwelling-houſes and barns, they burned a fort and two mills. They took ſeveral priſoners, and carried off a conſiderable quantity of plunder. The militia of Goſhen and its vicinity collected, to the number of 150, and purſued them; but with ſuch want of caution, that they were ſurpriſed and totally defeated. About the ſame time, a party of 250 Britiſh and Indians, under capt. Mc. Donald, took Freeland's-fort, on the weſt branch of the Suſquehanna; in which were thirty men, beſides women and children. The women and children were ſet at liberty; but the men were made priſoners of war. The party, on their way to this place, had burned ſeveral houſes and mills, and killed, and made priſoners of a number of the inhabitants.

General Williamson, of South-Carolina, entered the Indian country adjacent to the frontier of that state, about the 20th of August. He burned and destroyed the corn of eight towns, amounting, by computation, to upwards of 50,000 bushels; and obliged the Indians to remove immediately to more remote settlements. Colonel Broadhead also engaged in a successful expedition against the Mingo, Munsey, and Seneca indians, in the month of August, with about 600 men. He was absent from Pittsburgh nearly five weeks; in which time he penetrated 200 miles into the Indian country, destroyed a number of forts, and about 500 acres of corn, and brought off a good deal of plunder, consisting chiefly of skins.

But a much more formidable expedition against the Indians, than any that has occurred, in the preceding part of this history, was undertaken by the Americans in 1779. A considerable body of troops was destined for this service, and put under the command of general Sullivan. The Indians who form the confederacy of the six nations, or, as they have sometimes been called, the Mohawks, were the objects of this expedition. These nations, lying in that fertile tract of country, at the back of the New-England and middle states, amidst the great lakes, rivers, and impenetrable forests, which separate them from Canada, had long been renowned for the courage and constancy with which they adhered to the English, in their wars with the French. In the beginning of the present contest, they had entered into an engagement with congress, by which they promised to observe a strict neutrality. But the power of British presents, with the influence of sir William Johnson, and other agents among them, operating upon their own desire of depredation soon led them to depart from this pacific line of conduct; and they became principal agents in those cruel ravages which were carried on against the frontier settlements. They had derived a considerable accession of strength and discipline, from the great number of American refugees settled among them. The Oneidas and a few others, who were friendly to the Americans, were to be exempted from the general destruction; for the object of the expedition was destruction, as far as it might be capable of being carried into execution against an enemy, who can seldom be caught or found, except when he chooses, from motives of advantage, to stay, or to reveal himself. But although the savages should take care to avoid an engagement, and escape the direct vengeance of the Americans; still it was considered as an important advantage, to lay waste their country, and, by depriving them of the means of subsistance, to oblige them to take refuge in settlements more remote. This, it was hoped, would give permanent security and quiet to the numerous infant settlements on the frontier.

When general Sullivan was on his way to the Indian country, he was joined by the American general Clinton, with about 1600 men, batteau-men and other attendants included. This officer made his way down the Susquehannah, by a contrivance no less curious than novel.—Finding the stream of water in that river too low to float his batteaux, he had recourse to the ingenious but laborious expedient, of raising a dam across the mouth of the lake Otsego, which is one of

the ſources of the river Suſquehannah. The lake receiving a conſtant ſupply of water from ſprings, ſoon roſe to the deſired height; when Clinton got ready his batteaux, opened a paſſage through the dam, and, taking advantage of the ſtream which paſſed through, embarked all his troops, and floated them down the river, to Tioga. Sullivan's force, thus augmented, conſiſted of nearly four thouſand men, rank and file, beſides waggons, &c. The Indians, againſt whom this army was deſtined, had in the field, about 550 warriors. Theſe, with 250 refugees, were commanded by Butler, Brandt, and col. Guy Johnſon. On hearing of the expedition which was projected againſt them, they acted with firmneſs. They aſſembled all their force; and poſſeſſed themſelves of a difficult paſs in the woods, near Newtown, which they fortified with judgment. Here they waited Sullivan's approach, with a fixed determination to diſpute his paſſage. General Sullivan advanced, and, on the 29th of Auguſt, attacked them in their works. They ſtood a cannonade for upwards of two hours; but, perceiving that general Poor, with a conſiderable detachment, had taken a circuitous route, with a view to fall upon their left flank, and that other movements were made towards them, they betook themſelves to a precipitate flight. Of Sullivan's men, ſeven were killed and fourteen wounded, in the courſe of the day. The conſternation to which this defeat gave riſe among the Indians, was ſo great that they gave up all thoughts of further reſiſtance; and retreated as the Americans advanced, without attempting to throw any obſtruction in their way, during the ſubſequent devaſtation of their country.

General Sullivan traverſed the Indian country to a great extent, and in various directions, ſpreading deſolation every where. Their dwellings, whether in the form of towns, or detached habitations, vaſt quantities of corn in the ear, many large and flouriſhing orchards of apple and peach-trees, and a number of gardens which produced a great quantity and variety of uſeful vegetables, were conſigned to total and indiſcriminate ruin. To complete this ſcene of deſolation, and thus to render the expedition deciſive, required that the army ſhould remain in the Indian country ſeveral weeks; a meaſure which both officers and men cheerfully and unanimouſly agreed to, though they were obliged to put up with ſhort rations, a greater part of the time. Such was their keen ſenſe of the injuries ſuſtained by thoſe frontier inhabitants, who were expoſed to the depredations of the Indians, and ſo full of reſentment were they againſt an enemy who had been guilty of the moſt barbarous outrages, that they were deſirous to continue till they had completed the deſtruction of the ſettlement, and taken ample vengeance on their ſavage foe; although they were convinced that they muſt encounter many hardſhips, from a ſcarcity of proviſions, and a total want of moſt of the conveniences and comforts of civilized life. They were relieved, however, in ſome degree, by the ſupplies obtained in the country. So luxuriant was the ſoil, that the ears of corn, in many places, meaſured twenty-two inches in length. Of this they contrived to make a coarſe kind of meal, by perforating a few of their camp-kettles with bayonets; and rubbing the ears of corn on the rough ſurface formed by the protruſions.

The ſtate of improvement among thoſe people was found to be much more advanced than had been expected. The judicious choice of their ſituation for their towns and habitations; the ſize, neatneſs and conſtruction of their houſes, many of which were of frame-work; the number and largeneſs of their corn fields, together with the high degree of cultivation which they ſhowed; and the ſize and antiquity of their orchards, were ſtriking objects of admiration. According to general Sullivan's account of the expedition, 1500 fruit-trees were cut down in one orchard. He alſo mentions that the fruit-trees, in different places, had all the appearances of great age. This circumſtance ſeems to indicate, that cultivation was not of a late date among theſe people; and tends likewiſe to overthrow an opinion which has been pretty generally received, that the Indians are incapable of looking to futurity in their conduct, and conſequently are totally improvident with reſpect to poſterity. The deſtruction of the orchards were highly diſapproved of by ſome of the officers, as being a ſpecies of deſolation which even the Indians had not practiſed; but Sullivan was determined to carry devaſtation to its utmoſt extent. Neither the cruelties of the Indians, nor the juſtice of the reſentment againſt them, can prevent a feeling mind from lamenting ſuch an unneceſſary havock and deſtruction of the labours and hopes of mankind. It were to be wiſhed, for the ſake of humanity, that thoſe who conduct the operations of war, were ſo much under the influence of reaſon and philoſophy, as to diſtinguiſh between neceſſary and unneceſſary devaſtation; and to avoid engaging in ſuch ſcenes of havock as cannot be juſtified, either on principles of policy or neceſſity, merely to gratify an unworthy ſpirit of revenge.

By the middle of October, about three months after his ſetting out, Sullivan had returned as far as Eaſton, in Pennſylvania. He ſoon after rejoined the main army. The expedition proved an expenſive one. Upwards of one thouſand horſes periſhed, or were obliged to be left behind, exhauſted by fatigue. It is remarkable, that not more than eleven Indians were killed, during the whole of the expedition.

The Indians were now made to feel, in the moſt ſenſible manner, thoſe calamities they had long been accuſtomed to inflict on others. The ſufferings they experienced, and the dread of a repetition of them, damped the ardour of their warriors; and rendered them cautious how they provoked the further reſentment of the Americans, by their wonted depredations. The frontier ſettlements, though not reſtored to perfect tranquillity, were, for ſome time, exempted from a conſiderable proportion of the calamities in which they had been lately involved.

The exertions of the Americans were much more languid and feeble in the campaign of 1779, than in that of any preceding year, ſince the commencement of the war. They were no longer actuated by that enthuſiaſm for liberty, which prompted them, for ſome years after the commencement of the conteſt, to brave all danger, and to ſacrifice both life and property in the common cauſe. Their ardour was much abated; and numbers, conſulting their private intereſt, reſigned the military character, and reſumed the more lucrative employments of civil life. Upon the eſtabliſhment of the alliance with

France, in 1778, the Americans indulged the vain presumption, that the success of the revolution was no longer a matter of doubt. They had withstood the arms of Great-Britain four years, without foreign assistance; and conceived, therefore, that, aided by a powerful ally, they would not only be able to continue the contest, as before, but to drive the armies of Britain entirely out of the united states. But notwithstanding these flattering expectations, the campaign of 1778 terminated, without any direct advantage from the French fleet, which had been sent to their aid. This was a severe disappointment. Nor were their hopes in any degree realised, in the campaign of 1779. The same ill success attended the allied arms; and the Americans, from the dependance which they had placed on foreign assistance, found themselves but indifferently prepared for prosecuting the war, from their own resources. Lulled into a mistaken security, they had ceased to exert themselves in the manner their situation required. Disappointed in the favourable expectations they had indulged, their spirits were depressed in proportion to the former elevation of their hopes. Sundry internal causes combined, at this gloomy period, to relax the exertions, and increase the despondency of the Americans. The principal of these causes, however, was the daily depreciation of those bills of credit, which had been issued for the support of the war, and which had, for several years, been in such good credit, as to answer this important end. It was fortunate for America, that the embarrassed situation of Great-Britain, at this period, prevented her from prosecuting the war with vigour.

(To be continued.)

Observations *on* Dr. Logan's Rotation *of* Crops.*

ALTHOUGH the general principles of that rotation of crops, recommended by Dr. Logan, are agreeable to the new and most approved mode of English husbandry; yet the particulars of it must always be liable to alteration, according to the situation or soil of the farm. The quantity of flax and potatoes proposed to be raised, will no doubt appear improper to many gentlemen in the southern states, who hitherto have been too commonly supplied with linen from Europe, and who have confined their cultivation of potatoes to the garden, merely for the table. In ground well manured, I have found both crops profitable and highly useful. It may be regarded as a disgrace to this agricultural country, that we do not cultivate a sufficient quantity of flax, to supply the whole consumption of linen within the united states. With regard to potatoes, their introduction on the farm is one of the greatest improvements of modern husbandry. For several years I have made potatoes the principal food for cattle, horses, sheep, hogs and poultry. For the two latter they should be boiled; for the former they should be washed clean, cut small, and mixed with a small quantity of Indian meal and cut straw. Oxen

* See the Asylum for March, 1791, page 162.

and sheep will fatten more in one week on this food, than with turnips in two.

The means of giving and perpetuating a fertility to the soil, without the aid of any manure, except what can be created on the farm, constitutes one great object in a rotation of crops. I have made a variety of experiments on this subject, and have considered it well. I am of opinion,

1st. That no rotation of crops can be pursued, which will not exhaust the soil, without the periodical application of manure, either immediately plowed into the ground, or by the pasturing of cattle.

2dly. To give one impoverished acre a full dressing, will require a quantity of manure nearly equal to the value of the land.

3dly. No rotation of crops can be pursued, that will enable a farmer to procure from the stock and produce of the farm, a greater quantity of manure, than will annually fully dress more than one ninth part of his farm.

4thly, That a nine years' rotation of crops, connected with the best barn-yard management, will forever support a farm within itself, in the highest degree of cultivation.

I have been pointed in my remarks respecting manure, because many are too inattentive to this important article of good husbandry.

Some speculative men have ventured an opinion, that manure was not necessary on a farm. Tull and his followers maintain that the complete pulverizing of the earth, by the plough and harrow, is all that is requisite for perfecting the growth and vigour of plants. Tull was himself persuaded, and endeavoured to persuade others, that this alone would suffice, without the aid of manure; which he contended, could only serve to divide the soil and render it friable. Experience, the surest guide in all human affairs, affords us the most convincing demonstrations to the contrary of this opinion. But although we cannot adopt Tull's principles of cultivation, to the extent of his own ideas; yet it must be allowed, that Mr. Tull's exertions to support a favourite system have been of infinite service to agriculture, as they have tended to convince farmers of the prodigious advantages to be derived from deep ploughing, good harrowing, and putting the ground in a good tilth, before sowing.

The Philadelphia society for promoting agriculture have lately started a new idea, respecting the possibility of ground being rendered forever productive, without manure. In the last publication of premiums offered by the society, it is observed that "the rotation of crops has been found in England *constantly to improve the soil instead of exhausting it.*" I wish gentlemen not to be misled by this vague assertion of the society; and whilst they are building large barns to contain their crops, that they would not neglect good stable-yards to collect and preserve manure. The greatest advocates of the rotation system in England *only contend* that a course of crops, in which clover is introduced, may be pursued with greater advantage to the farmer, than to suffer his fields to continue two or three years covered with weeds, which was the plan of conducting their farms previous to the introduction of clover. Agreeably to the new system of agriculture,

it is evident that the beſt rotation of crops conſiſts of the greateſt number of valuable crops procured by one full manuring.

The Philadelphia agricultural ſociety offer a premium of two hundred dollars for the beſt experiment of a five years courſe of crops, conducted upon principles which have been practiſed in England.

A five years rotation of crops may be purſued with advantage, on a few acres, in the neighbourhood of a large city, from whence any quantity of manure could be procured. In this ſituation, a courſe of crops could not take place that would be more productive and valuable, than that mentioned in Dr. Logan's 13th experiment: potatoes; barley; clover; clover; wheat. The four firſt particularly calculated for the vicinity of a populous town; the laſt, valuable in any ſituation—but I do know, from a variety of experiments made to aſcertain this point, that a five years rotation will not afford the farmer a ſufficient variety of crops; and what is of greater importance, on a well conducted farm, that no crops, even connected with the beſt economy of procuring and employing the manure, will furniſh a ſufficient quantity to dreſs one fifth part of the farm annually—It is with the beſt management that the produce of a farm will annually afford a ſufficiency of manure for a ninth part of it, Lord Kaimes, in his valuable publication on agriculture, obſerves, that no branch of huſbandry requires more ſkill and ſagacity, than a proper rotation of crops. He divides plants into culmiferous and leguminous, but does not pretend to ſay that *either enriches the ſoil*: the former leaves the ſoil hard and bound, whilſt the latter tends to mellow and open it; therefore it becomes neceſſary that alternate crops, culmiferous and leguminous, ſhould form the rotation. Nor are there many ſoils that will ſtand good, even with this favourable rotation, unleſs relieved, from time to time, by *paſturing a few years*. A rotation of crops for nine years could not be carried on to advantage without paſture; but on an extenſive farm, paſture will be found as neceſſary in a rotation, as any crop of grain.

A FARMER.

Directions *for obtaining a* Good Stock *of* Sheep.

[By John Beale Bordley, Eſq.]

AMONGST the attentions to ſheep, it is particularly recommended to farmers, that they let only a few ewes run at large with a ram, for giving a few early lambs; that the reſt of the ewes be kept ſeparate from the rams, till the middle of October, and then be allowed a ram to twenty, or at moſt twenty-five. Their lambs will come from the middle to the end of March. It is alſo advantageous to keep ewe and ram lambs apart eighteen or twenty months, from January or March till October the enſuing year, before they be ſuffered to be together. It is beſt that there be not more than one ram with a diviſion of ewes, at a time, where they can be parcelled off into different fields, or lots, for two or three weeks.

To obſerve the ages of ſheep is important.—Some age ought to be fixed on by the farmer, beyond which nothing ſhould induce him to keep them. At the ſhearing time, the mouth of every ſheep and lamb is to be inſpected; and the lambs having blackiſh gums, or that are not ſtraight, well made and promiſing, are to be marked for ſale; as alſo the aged rams, ewes, and wethers, whatever be the age fixed on by the farmer for clearing his flock from old ſheep, be it four or five years; which ſeem to be the ages for governing us in this particular, in the climate of America. As many lambs, the beſt, are to be turned out for breeders and for muttons, proportioned, as there are to be ſheep diſpoſed of, as being aged,—and a few more to ſupply loſſes, while they are growing up.

The farmer will firſt determine on the number of grown ſheep to be kept by him; then on the age he means to obſerve for diſpoſing of them: for he is to have none in his flock that are not in full vigour. Dividing the number in the whole flock, by the age at which he means to diſpoſe of them, gives the number of lambs he is to turn out as a ſupply to the ſame number of ſheep, to be diſpoſed of from the old ſtock:—and a few more lambs are to be turned out with the ſtock lambs, for making good any loſſes. If five years be fixed on, for the full age, and there be one hundred ſheep, the fives in a hundred being twenty, direct to the diſpoſing of twenty aged ſheep, and to the turning out twenty, more four or five, in all twenty-five lambs for a ſupply to the flock. After ſix years of age, ſheep decline in figure and in wool. Brambles are charged, by common farmers, with taking off all the wool that ſheep appear to have loſt: but when ſheep decline in vigour and good plight, they decline in the quantity of their wool, and look mean, even in paſtures clear of brambles.

CHARACTER *of the* SPANIARDS.

[From SWINBURNE'S TRAVELS through SPAIN, in 1775 and 1776.]

THE liſtleſs indolence equally dear to the uncivilized ſavage, and to the degenerate ſlave of deſpotiſm, is no where more indulged than in Spain; thouſands of men in all parts of the realm are ſeen to paſs their whole day, wrapped up in a cloak, ſtanding in rows againſt a wall, or doſing under a tree. In total want of every excitement to action, the ſprings of their intellectual faculties forget to play, their views grow confined within the wretched ſphere of mere exiſtence, and they ſcarce ſee to hope or foreſee any thing better than their preſent ſtate of vegetation; they feel little or no concern for the welfare or glory of a country, where the ſurface of the earth is engroſſed by a few over-grown families, who ſeldom beſtow a thought on the condition of their vaſſals. The *poor* Spaniard does not work, unleſs urged by irreſiſtable want, becauſe he perceives no advantage accrue from induſtry. As his food and raiment are purchaſed at a ſmall expence, he ſpends no more time in labour, than is abſolutely neceſſary for procuring the ſcanty proviſion his abſtemiouſneſs re-

quires. I have heard a peaſant refuſe to run an errand, becauſe he had that morning earned as much already as would laſt him the day, without putting himſelf to any further trouble.

Yet I am convinced that this lazineſs is not eſſentially inherent in the Spaniſh compoſition; for it is impoſſible, without ſeeing them, to conceive with what eagerneſs they purſue any favourite ſcheme, with what violence their paſſions work upon them, and what vigour and exertion of powers they diſplay when awakened by a bull-feaſt, or the more conſtant agitation of gaming, a vice to which they are ſuperlatively addicted. Were it again poſſible, by an intelligent, ſpirited adminiſtration, to ſet before their eyes, in a clear and forcible manner, proper incitements to activity and induſtry, the Spaniards might yet be roufed from their lethargy, and led to riches and reputation; but I confeſs the taſk is ſo difficult, that I look upon it rather as an Utopian idea, than as a revolution likely ever to take place.

Their ſoldiers are brave, and patient of hardſhips: wherever their officers lead them, they will follow without flinching, though it be up to the mouth of a battery of cannon; but unleſs the example be given them by their commander, not a ſtep will they advance.

Moſt of the Spaniards are hardy; and, when once engaged, go through difficulties without murmuring, bear the inclemencies of the ſeaſons with firmneſs, and ſupport fatigue with amazing perſeverance. They ſleep every night in their cloaks on the ground; are ſparing in diet, perhaps more from a ſenſe of habitual indigence, than from any averſion to gluttony; whenever they can riot in the plenty of another man's table, they will gormandize to exceſs, and, not content with eating their fill, will carry off whatever they can ſtuff into their pockets. I have more than once been a witneſs to the pillage of a ſupper, by the numerous beaux and admirers which the ladies lead after them in triumph, wherever they are invited. They are fond of ſpices, and ſcarce eat any thing without ſaffron, pimento, or garlic; they delight in the wine that taſtes ſtrong of the pitched ſkin, and of oil that has a rank ſmell and taſte; indeed, the ſame oil feeds their lamp, ſwims in their pottage, and dreſſes their ſallad: in inns the lighted lamp is frequently handed down to the table, that each man may take the quantity he chooſes.—Much tobacco is uſed by them in ſmoking and chewing. All theſe hot, drying kinds of food, co-operating with the parching qualities of the atmoſphere, are aſſigned as cauſes of the ſpare make of the common people in Spain, where the prieſts and the inn-keepers are almoſt the only well-fed, portly figures to be met with.

The Spaniſh is by no means naturally a ſerious, melancholy nation; miſery and diſcontent have caſt a gloom over them, increaſed, no doubt, by the long habit of diſtruſt and terror inſpired by the inquiſition; yet every village ſtill reſounds with the muſic of voices and guitars; and their fairs, and Sunday wakes are remarkably noiſy and riotous. They talk louder, and argue with more vehemence than even the French or Italians, and geſticulate with equal, if not ſuperior eagerneſs. In Catalonia, the young men are expert at ball; and

every village has its *Pelota*, or ground for playing at fives; but in the fouth of Spain, I never preceived that the inhabitants ufed any particular exercife. I am told, that in the iſland of Majorca, they ſtill wield the ſling, for which their anceſtors, the Baleares, were ſo much renowned.

Like moſt people of ſouthern climates, they are dirty in their perſons, and over-run with vermin.

The very mention of horns is an inſult, and the ſight of them makes their blood boil.* As their conſtitution may be ſaid to be made up of the moſt combuſtible ingredients, and prone to love in a degree that natives of more northern latitudes can have no idea of, the cuſtom of embracing perſons of the other ſex, which is uſed on many occaſions by foreigners, ſets the Spaniards all on fire. They would as ſoon allow a man to paſs the night in bed with their wives or daughters, as ſuffer him to give them a kiſs; and indeed, I believe the ladies themſelves would look upon that favour as a certain prelude to others of greater conſequence. Next to accuſing a Spaniard of wearing horns, nothing can give him ſuch offence as to ſuſpect him of having an iſſue.

I was ſurpriſed to find them ſo much more lukewarm in their devotion than I expected; but I will not take upon me to aſſert, though I have great reaſon to believe it, that there is in Spain as little true moral religion as in any country I ever travelled through, although none abounds more with provincial protectors, local Madonnas, and altars celebrated for particular cures and indulgencies: religion is a topic not to be touched, much leſs handled with any degree of curioſity, in the dominions of ſo tremendous a tribunal as the Inquiſition. From what little I ſaw, I am apt to ſuſpect, that the people here trouble themſelves with very few ſerious thoughts on the ſubject; and that, provided they can bring themſelves to believe that their favourite Saint looks upon them with an eye of affection, they take it for granted, that, under his benign influence, they are freed from all apprehenſions of damnation in a future ſtate; and indeed, from any great concern about the moral duties of this life. The burning zeal, which diſtinguiſhed their anceſtors above the reſt of the catholic world, appears to have loſt much of its activity, and really ſeems nearly extinguiſhed. It is hard to aſcribe bounds to the changes a crafty, ſteady and popular monarch might make in eccleſiaſtical matters. The unconcern betrayed by the whole nation at the fall of the Jeſuits, is a ſtrong proof of their preſent indifference. Thoſe fathers, the moſt powerful body politic in the kingdom, the rulers of the palace, and the deſpots of the cottage, the directors of the conſcience, and the diſpoſers of the fortune of every rank of men, were all ſeized in one night, by detachments of ſoldiers, hurried like malefactors to the ſea-ports, and baniſhed forever from the realm, without the leaſt reſiſtance to the royal mandate being made, or even threatened. Their very memory ſeems to be annihilated with their power.

* For this reaſon the Spaniards turn their hand downwards when they beckon to any one.

We found the common people inoffenſive, if not civil; and having never had an opportunity of being witneſſes to any of their exceſſes, can ſay nothing of their violent jealouſy or revenge, which are points moſt writers on Spain have expatiated upon with great pleaſure. I believe in this line, as well as in many others, their bad as well as good qualities have been magnified many degrees above the truth.

The moſt furious example of paſſion and cruelty that I heard of, happened a few years ago at San Lucar. A Carmelite friar fell deſperately in love with a young woman, to whom he was confeſſor. He tried every art of ſeduction his deſires could ſuggeſt to him; but, to his unſpeakable vexation, found her virtue or indifference proof againſt all his machinations. His deſpair was heightened to a pitch of madneſs, upon hearing that ſhe was ſoon to be married to a perſon of her own rank in life. The furies of jealouſy ſeized his ſoul, and worked him up to the moſt barbarous of all determinations, that of depriving his rival of the prize, by putting an end to her exiſtence. He choſe Eaſter week for the perpetration of his crime. The unſuſpecting girl came to the confeſſional, and poured out her ſoul at his feet; her innocence ſerved only to inflame his rage the more, and to confirm him in his bloody purpoſe. He gave her abſolution and the ſacrament with his own hands, as his love deterred him from murdering her, before he thought ſhe was purified from all ſtain of ſin, and her ſoul fit to take its flight to the tribunal of its Creator; but his jealouſy and revenge urged him to purſue her down the church, and plunge his dagger in her heart, as ſhe turned round to make a genu-flection to the altar. He was immediately ſeized, and ſoon condemned to die; but leſt his ignominious execution ſhould reflect diſhonour on a religious order, which boaſts of having an aunt of the king of France among its members, his ſentence was changed into perpetual labour among the galley-ſlaves of Portorico.

The national qualities, good and bad, conſpicuous in the lower claſſes of men, are eaſily traced, and very diſcernable in thoſe of higher rank; for their education is too much neglected, their minds too little enlightened by ſtudy or communication with other nations, to rub off the general ruſt, with which the Spaniſh genius has, for above an age, been, as it were, incruſtated. The public ſchools and univerſities are in a deſpicable ſtate of ignorance and irregularity. Some feeble hope of future reformation is indulged by patriots; but time muſt ſhew what probabilities they are grounded upon.*

The common education of an Engliſh gentleman would conſtitute a man of learning here; and ſhould he underſtand Greek, he would be quite a phænomenon. As to the nobility, I wonder how they ever learned to read or write; or having once attained ſo much, how they contrive not to forget it. It is difficult to ſay what they paſs their time in; or what means, beſides inattention to buſineſs, they employ in running through their immenſe incomes. In the great houſes one cuſtom may contribute to extravagance; a ſervant once eſtabliſhed is never diſcharged, unleſs for ſome very enormous of-

* Since I left Spain, a reform has taken place in the great colleges.

fence; he and his family remain penſioners as long as they live: the duke of I. pays near ten thouſand pounds ſterling a year in wages and annuities to ſervants. The grandees, one or two excepted, are diminiſhed by a ſeries of diſtempered progenitors to a race of pigmies, which dwindles away for lack of heirs, and tends gradually to an union of all the titles and eſtates upon the heads of one or two families. I think the Conde de Altamira has no leſs than nineteen grandeeſhips centered in his perſon. Though they all ſtile themſelves *de primera claſſe*, as it were, by way of diſtinctive pre-eminence over others of a lower degree; yet I believe no ſecond or third claſs exiſts, and it would be a very groſs inſult to ſuppoſe any of them were of an inferior rank to the reſt of the *corps*: ſome difference may perhaps be made in the degrees of popular reſpect paid to the deſcendants of the heroes that make a figure in the Spaniſh annals, and ſuch grandees as have been honoured with the dignity in latter times. A grandee can marry none but his equal. They all *thou* each other, and affect to appear backward in mixing in other company.

The Spaniſh women are in general little, and thin; few are ſtrikingly beautiful, but almoſt all have ſparkling black eyes, full of expreſſion. It is not the faſhion here, as in France, to heighten their *eclat* with paint. They are endowed by nature with a great deal of wit and lively repartee, but for want of the poliſh and ſuccours of education, their wit remains obſcured by the rudeſt ignorance, and the moſt ridiculous prejudices. Their tempers having never been faſhioned by polite intercourſe, nor ſoftened by neceſſary contradiction, are extremely pettiſh and violent. They are continually pouting for ſomething or other, and put out of humour by the mereſt trifles. Moſt of the ladies about court are the reverſe of handſome, and do not ſeem to have any ambition of paſſing for clever or accompliſhed; not one talent do they poſſeſs; nor do they ever work, read, write, or touch any muſical inſtrument: their *Cortejo*, or gallant, ſeems their only play-thing. I believe no country exhibits more bare-faced amours, and ſuch an appearance of indelicate debauchery as this. The account given me of their manner of living in their family way, as ſoon as they come out of the convent, and before they have fixed upon a lover to fill up their time more agreeably, is as follows: they riſe late, and loiter away the remains of the morning among their attendants, or wear it out at church in a long bead-roll of habitual unmeaning prayers; they dine ſparingly, ſleep, and then dreſs to ſaunter for a couple of hours on the Prado. They are never without ſome ſort of ſugar-plum or high ſpiced comfit in their mouths. As ſoon as it is dark, they run to the houſe of ſome elderly female relation, where they all huddle together over a pan of coals, and would not for the world approach the company that may occaſionally drop in; it would throw them into the greateſt confuſion, were they to be requeſted to join in the converſation. The hour of the aſſembly paſſed, they hurry home to their maids, and, with their help, ſet about dreſſing their own ſuppers by way of amuſement.

CHARACTER *of a late* AMERICAN OFFICER.

HE was born of very reputable and wealthy parents, in the ſtate of Connecticut. After he had finiſhed his Engliſh education in the vicinity of his parents, he was ſent to New-Jerſey college. From his fertile imagination, his vivacious temper, and his boundleſs propenſity for learning, he ſoon became thoroughly acquainted with the claſſicks. In ſo grateful a ſoil as his genius, it was next to impoſſible for education not to have flouriſhed. He left the ſeminary at a very early period; happily uniting the qualities of the unaffected ſcholar, with the refinements of the polite gentleman:—His affability was as pleaſing as his manner was engaging; an equal enemy to ſervile flattery, and to ſupercilious arrogance. His amiable diſpoſition bought him friends without *money or without price*, and the reſpectability of his virtues taught eſteem to follow him, wherever he went. At the age of eighteen, he was promoted to the command of a regiment; and it may appear ſomewhat ſurpriſing, that at ſo early a period he was capable of blending the vivacity of youthful intrepidity, with all the ſober maturity of experience. After the termination of the Indian and French war againſt the Britiſh, in which he acquired great honour, he ſheathed his ſword in its peaceful ſcabbard, in order to enjoy the fruits of his toils—the ſweets of retirement. But his faculties were of too graſping and aſpiring a nature, to delight in the ſhade of private life—he thought he would carry them to a theatre, on which he might diſplay their uncommon luſtre to more advantage. He embarked for England, and poſſeſſing an affluent fortune, he carried with him recommendations, equivalent to his money. He was introduced to the late earl of Cheſterfield; who, on account of his addreſs as a gentleman, together with the eclat of his military character, preſented him to the king, who received him very graciouſly. After being initiated into the gay and polite circles, and treading a perpetual round of pleaſures, till he became perfectly ſatiated with the enjoyments of a court life, he bid adieu to his patron and friend, lord Cheſterfield, and to England, and arrived in a few weeks in his native place—where he was received with equal joy and ſurprize by his parents and relations: the uncommon brilliancy of his equipage, and other exterior appendages of ſplendour, kept ſome of his former acquaintances for ſome time at an awful diſtance: but though perhaps he might have left ſome of his virtues behind him, and in their ſtead have brought a ſpice of ſome vices, yet he preſerved his good underſtanding unimpaired, which made him on all occaſions acceſſable to former friendſhips. His houſe was a perfect levee of joyous entertainment; his doors turned on the hinges of hoſpitality, and gladneſs ſparkled in the eyes of all his gueſts. But the manners of theſe ſober republicans, viewing with ſome concern the growing evils which might reſult from too great an indulgence in theſe voluptuous ſcenes, perſuaded his parents to throw a gentle check on his eccentrick enjoyments,—and they married him to an amiable woman. The cares of a growing offſpring, in ſome meaſure wore off his inordinate appetite for convivial

ſociety. The American war came on, and he being a friend to the bleeding cauſe of imploring freedom, gallantly eſpouſed her injured rights. He fought a good fight, and completed the glory of his profeſſion. But the ſeeds of debauchery and extravagance, which had been too profuſely ſown in his European pleaſures, ſprang up afreſh with redoubled vigour—his conſtitution waſted away with his fortune, and at length he fell an untimely victim to the chymical proceſs of the bottle. In order to give a finiſhing ſtroke to the features of his character—nature, as if anxious that ſo bright a pattern of her works ſhould be ſet in the faireſt light, had beſtowed on him all bodily accompliſhments; dignity of ſhape and air, with a pleaſant, manly and open countenance; his exteriour comelineſs could only be ſurpaſſed by the intellectual poliſh of his mind! Reader—drop a tear of ſenſibility on his misfortunes, and *weed this nettle from his grave.*

Alas! that ſo fair a flower ſhould be withered by a rude blaſt of DISSIPATION.

CURIOUS ACCOUNT *of a* CHIEF *reſiding near* NOOTKA, *and of a* FEAST *given by him to Mr.* MEARS, *and his* SHIP'S COMPANY.

[From MEARS'S VOYAGES.]

ON entering the houſe, we were abſolutely aſtoniſhed at the vaſt area it encloſed: it contained a large ſquare, boarded up cloſe on all ſides to the height of twenty feet, with planks of uncommon breadth and length. Three enormous trees, rudely carved and painted, formed the rafters, which were ſupported at the ends and in the middle, by gigantic images, carved out of huge blocks of timber. The ſame kind of broad planks covered the whole, to keep out the rain; but they were ſo placed as to be removed at pleaſure, either to receive the air or light, or let out the ſmoke.

In the middle of this ſpacious room were ſeveral fires, and beſide them large wooden veſſels, filled with fiſh ſoup. Large ſlices of whale's fleſh lay in a ſtate of preparation, to be put in ſimilar machines, filled with water, into which the women, with a kind of tongs, conveyed hot ſtones from very fierce fires, in order to make it boil. Heaps of fiſh were ſtrewed about, and in this central part of the place, which might be very properly called the kitchen, ſtood large ſeal-ſkins, filled with oil, from which the gueſts were ſerved with that delicious beverage.

The trees which ſupported the roof were of a ſize which would render the maſt of a firſt-rate man of war diminutive, on a compariſon with them; indeed our curioſity, as well as our aſtoniſhment, was on its utmoſt ſtretch, when we conſidered the ſtrength that muſt be neceſſary to raiſe theſe enormous beams to their preſent elevation; and how ſuch ſtrength could be found, by a people wholly unacquainted with the mechanic powers.

The door by which we entered this extraordinary fabric was the mouth of one of these huge images, which, large as it may be supposed, was not disproportioned to the other features of this monstrous image's visage. We ascended by a few steps on the outside, and after passing this extraordinary kind of portal, descended down to the chin into the house, where we found new matter for astonishment, in the number of men, women, and children, who composed the family of the chief, which consisted of at least *eight hundred* persons: these were divided into groups, according to their respective offices, which had their distinct places assigned them. The whole of the building was surrounded by a bench, about two feet from the ground, on which the various inhabitants sat, eat, and slept. The chief, who was called Wicaniniſh, appeared at the upper end of the room, surrounded by natives of rank, on a small, raised platform, around which were placed several large chests, over which hung bladders of oil, large slices of whale's flesh, and proportionable goblets of blubber. Festoons of human skulls, arranged with some attention to uniformity, were dispoſed in almost every part where they could be placed, and were considered as a very splendid decoration of the royal apartment.

When we appeared, the guests had made a considerable advance in their banquet. Before each person was placed a large slice of boiled whale, which, with small, wooden dishes, filled with oil and fish soup, and a large muscle-shell, by way of spoon, composed the economy of the table. The servants were busily employed in preparing to repleniſh the several dishes as they were emptied, and the women in picking and opening the bark of a tree, which served the purpose of towels. If the luxury of this entertainment is to be determined by the voraciousness with which it was eaten, and the quantity that was swallowed, we must consider it as the most luxurious feast we had ever beheld. Even the children, and some of them were not more than three years old, possessed the same rapacious appetite for oil and blubber as their fathers: the women, however, are forbidden from eating at these ceremonials.

Wicaniniſh, with an air of hospitality which would have graced a more cultivated society, met us half way from the entrance, and conducted us to a seat near his own, on which we placed ourselves, and indulged our curiosity, during the remainder of the banquet, in viewing the perspective of this singular habitation.

The feast being ended, we were desired to shew the presents which were intended for the chief: a great variety of articles, brought for that purpose, were accordingly displayed, among which were several blankets and two copper tea-kettles. The eyes of the whole assembly were rivetted upon these unusual objects, and a guardian was immediately assigned to the two tea-kettles, who, on account of their extraordinary value and beauty, was ordered to place them, with great care, in the royal coffers, which consisted of large chests rudely carved, and fancifully adorned with human teeth.

About fifty men now advanced in the middle of the area, each of them holding up before us a sea-otter's skin, of near six feet in length, and the most jetty blackness. As they remained in this posture, the

chief made a ſpeech, and, giving his hand in token of friendſhip, informed us the ſkins were the return he propoſed to make for our preſent, and accordingly ordered them to be immediately ſent to the ſhip.

Our royal hoſt appeared to be entirely ſatisfied with our homage; and we, who were equally pleaſed with his magnificence, were about to take our leave, when the ladies of his family advanced towards us, from a diſtant part of the building, whither they had retired during the entertainment. Two of them had paſſed the middle age, but the other two were young, and the beauty of their countenances was ſo powerful as to predominate over the oil and red ochre, which, in a great meaſure, covered them: one of the latter, in particular, diſplayed ſo ſweet an air of diffidence and modeſty, that no diſguſt of colour, or deformity of dreſs, could preclude her from awakening an intereſt even in minds cultured to refinement. We had not, very fortunately, diſpoſed of all the treaſure we had brought on ſhore, and a few beads and ear-rings that yet remained, ſerved to give our viſit a concluding grace, by preſenting them to theſe ladies of the court.

Extracts *from* Paine's Rights *of* Man—Part II.

That England has no conſtitution.

In England, it is not difficult to perceive that every thing has a conſtitution, except the nation. Every ſociety and aſſociation that is eſtabliſhed, firſt agreed upon a number of original articles, digeſted into form, which are its conſtitution. It then appointed its officers, whoſe powers and authorities are deſcribed in that conſtitution, and the government of that ſociety then commenced. Thoſe officers, by whatever name they are called, have no authority to add to, alter, or abridge the original articles. It is only to the conſtituting power that this right belongs.

From the want of underſtanding the difference between a conſtitution and a government, Dr. Johnſon, and all writers of his deſcription, have always bewildered themſelves. They could not but perceive, that there muſt neceſſarily be a *controuling* power exiſting ſomewhere, and they placed this power in the diſcretion of the perſons exerciſing the government, inſtead of placing it in a conſtitution, formed by the nation. When it is in a conſtitution, it has the nation for its ſupport, and the natural and the political controling powers are together. The laws which are enacted by governments, controul men only as individuals, but the nation, through its conſtitution, controuls the whole government, and has a natural ability ſo to do. The final controuling power, therefore, and the original conſtituting power, are one and the ſame power.

Dr. Johnſon could not have advanced ſuch a poſition in any country where there was a conſtitution; and he is himſelf an evidence, that no ſuch thing as a conſtitution exiſts in England. But it may be

put as a queſtion, not improper to be inveſtigated, That if a conſtitution does not exiſt, how came the idea of its exiſtence ſo generally eſtabliſhed?

In order to decide this queſtion, it is neceſſary to conſider a conſtitution in both its caſes:—Firſt, as creating a government and giving it powers. Secondly, as regulating and reſtraining the powers ſo given.

If we begin with William of Normandy, we find that the government of England was originally a tyranny, founded on an invaſion and conqueſt of the country. This being admitted, it will then appear, that the exertion of the nation, at different periods, to abate that tyranny, and render it leſs intolerable, has been credited for a conſtitution.

Magna Charta, as it was called, (it is now like an almanack of the ſame date,) was no more than compelling the government to renounce a part of its aſſumptions. It did not create and give powers to government in the manner a conſtitution does; but was, as far as it went, of the nature of a re-conqueſt, and not of a conſtitution; for could the nation have totally expelled the uſurpation, as France has done its deſpotiſm, it would then have had a conſtitution to form.

The hiſtory of the Edwards and the Henries, and up to the commencement of the Stuarts, exhibits as many inſtances of tyranny as could be acted within the limits to which the nation had reſtricted it. The Stuarts endeavoured to paſs thoſe limits, and their fate is well known. In all thoſe inſtances, we ſee nothing of a conſtitution, but only of reſtrictions on aſſumed power.

After this, another William, deſcended from the ſame ſtock, and claiming from the ſame origin, gained poſſeſſion; and of the two evils, *James* and *William*, the nation preferred what it thought the leaſt; ſince, from circumſtances, it muſt take one. The act, called the Bill of Rights, comes here into view. What is it but a bargain which the parts of the government made with each other to divide powers, profits, and privileges? You ſhall have ſo much, and I will have the reſt; and with reſpect to the nation, it ſaid, for *your ſhare*, YOU *ſhall have the right of petitioning*. This being the caſe, the bill of rights is more properly a bill of wrongs, and of inſult. As to what is called the convention parliament, it was a thing that made itſelf, and then made the authority by which it acted. A few perſons got together, and called themſelves by that name. Several of them had never been elected, and none of them for the purpoſe.

From the time of William, a ſpecies of government aroſe, iſſuing out of this coalition bill of rights; and more ſo, ſince the corruption introduced at the Hanover ſucceſſion, by the agency of Walpole; that can be deſcribed by no other name than a deſpotic legiſlation. Though the parts may embarraſs each other, the whole has no bounds; and the only right it acknowledges out of itſelf, is the right of petitioning. Where then is the conſtitution either that gives or that reſtrains power?

It is not becauſe a part of the government is elective, that makes it leſs a deſpotiſm, if the perſons ſo elected, poſſeſs afterwards, as a parliament, unlimited powers. Election, in this caſe, becomes

ſeparated from repreſentation, and the candidates are candidates for deſpotiſm.

Wretchedneſs of the poor under the old governments.

When, in countries that are called civilized, we ſee age going to the work-houſe and youth to the gallows, ſomething muſt be wrong in the ſyſtem of government. It would ſeem, by the exterior appearance of ſuch countries, that all was happineſs; but there lies hidden from the eye of common obſervation, a maſs of wretchedneſs that has ſcarcely any other chance, than to expire in poverty or infamy. Its entrance into life is marked with the preſage of its fate; and until this is remedied, it is in vain to puniſh.

Civil government does not conſiſt in executions; but in making ſuch proviſion for the inſtruction of youth, and the ſupport of age, as to exclude, as much as poſſible, profligacy from the one, and deſpair from the other. Inſtead of this, the reſources of a country are laviſhed upon kings, upon courts, upon hirelings, impoſtors, and proſtitutes; and even the poor themſelves, with all their wants upon them, are compelled to ſupport the fraud that oppreſſes them.

Why is it, that ſcarcely any are executed but the poor? The fact is a proof, among other things, of a wretchedneſs in their condition. Bred up without morals, and caſt upon the world without a proſpect, they are the expoſed ſacrifice of vice and legal barbarity. The millions that are ſuperfluouſly waſted upon governments, are more than ſufficient to reform thoſe evils, and to benefit the condition of every man in a nation, not included within the purlieus of a court.

On variety in religious opinions, and modes of worſhip.

Throughout this work, various and numerous as the ſubjects are, which I have taken up and inveſtigated, there is only a ſingle paragraph upon religion, viz. "*That every religion is good, that teaches man "to be good.*"

I have carefully avoided to enlarge upon the ſubject, becauſe I am inclined to believe, that what is called the preſent miniſtry wiſh to ſee contentions about religion kept up, to prevent the nation turning its attention to ſubjects of government. It is, as if they were to ſay, "*Look that way, or any way, but this.*"

But as religion is very improperly made a political machine, and the reality of it is thereby deſtroyed, I will conclude this work with ſtating in what light religion appears to me.

If we ſuppoſe a large family of children, who, on any particular day, or particular circumſtance, made it a cuſtom to preſent to their parent ſome token of their affection and gratitude, each of them would make a different offering, and moſt probably in a different manner. Some would pay their congratulations in themes of verſe or proſe, by ſome little devices, as their genius dictated, or according to what they thought would pleaſe; and, perhaps, the leaſt of all, not able to do any of thoſe things, would ramble into the garden, or the field, and gather what it thought the prettieſt flower

it could find, though, perhaps, it might be but a ſimple weed. The parent would be more gratified by ſuch a variety, than if the whole of them had acted on a concerted plan, and each had made exactly the ſame offering. This would have the cold appearance of contrivance, or the harſh one of controul. But of all unwelcome things, nothing could more afflict the parent than to know, that the whole of them had afterwards gotten together by the ears, boys and girls, fighting, ſcratching, reviling, and abuſing each other about which was the beſt or worſt preſent.

Why may we not ſuppoſe, that the great Father of all is pleaſed with variety of devotion; and that the greateſt offence we can act, is that by which we ſeek to torment and render each other miſerable.

I do not believe that any two men, on what are called doctrinal points, think alike, who think at all. It is only thoſe who have not thought, that appear to agree.

As to what are called national religions, we may, with as much propriety, talk of national Gods. It is either political craft or the remains of the Pagan ſyſtem, when every nation had its ſeparate and particular deity.

On INTEMPERANCE *in* DRINKING.

THE arguments againſt drunkenneſs, which the common reaſon of mankind ſuggeſts, are theſe:—

The contemptible figure which it gives us:

The hindrance it is to any confidence being repoſed in us, ſo far as our ſecrecy is concerned:

The dangerous advantage which it affords the crafty and the knaviſh over us:

The bad effects which it hath on our health:

The prejudice which our minds receive from it:

Its *diſpoſing* us to *many crimes*, and *preparing* us for the *greateſt*:

The contemptible figure, which drunkenneſs gives us, is no weak argument for avoiding it.

Every reader has found the *Spartans* mentioned, as inculcating ſobriety on their *children*, by expoſing to their notice the behaviour of their ſlaves in a drunken fit. They thought, that were they to apply wholly to the reaſon of the *youths*, it might be to little purpoſe: as the force of the arguments, which they uſed, might not be ſufficiently apprehended, or the impreſſion thereof might be ſoon effaced: but when they made them frequently eye-witneſſes of all the madneſs and abſurdities, and at length the perfect ſenſeleſſneſs, which the immoderate draught occaſioned: the idea of the *vile change* would be ſo fixed in the minds of its beholders, as to render them utterly averſe from its cauſe.

And may we not juſtly conclude it to be from hence, that the offſpring of the perſons who are accuſtomed thus to diſguiſe themſelves, often prove remarkably ſober? They avoid, in their *riper years*, their parent's crime, from the deteſtation of it, which they contracted in

their *earlier*. As to moſt other vices, their debaſing circumſtances are not fully known to us till we have attained a maturity of age, nor can be then, till they have been duly attended to: but in our very childhood, at our firſt beholding the effects of drunkenneſs, we are ſtruck with aſtoniſhment, that a reaſonable being ſhould be thus changed—ſhould be induced to make himſelf ſuch an object of contempt and ſcorn. And, indeed, we muſt have the man in the *utmoſt* contempt, whom we hear and ſee in his progreſs to exceſs; at firſt, teazing you with his contentiouſneſs or impertinence—miſtaking your meaning and hardly knowing his own—then, faultering in his ſpeech—unable to get through an entire ſentence—his hand trembling—his eyes ſwimming—his legs too feeble to ſupport him; till, at length, you only know the human creature by his ſhape.

I cannot but add, that were one of any ſenſe to have a juſt notion of all the ſilly things he ſays or does, of the wretched appearance, which he makes in a *drunken fit*, he could not want a more powerful argument againſt repeating his crime.

A ſecond objection to drunkenneſs is, that it hinders any confidence being repoſed in us, ſo far as our ſecrecy is concerned.

Who can truſt the man who is not maſter of himſelf? Wine, as it leſſens our caution, ſo it prompts us to ſpeak our thoughts without reſerve: when it has ſufficiently inflamed us, all the ſuggeſtions of prudence paſs for the apprehenſions of cowardice; we are regardleſs of conſequences; our foreſight is gone, and our fear with it. Here then the artful perſon properly introducing the ſubject, urging us to enter upon it—and, after that, praiſing, or blaming, or contradicting, or queſtioning us, is ſoon able to draw from us whatever information he deſires to obtain.

The young debauchee ſoon experiences the iſſue of his miſconduct—ſoon finds his food diſreliſhed, his ſtomach weakened, his ſtrength decayed, his body waſted. In the flower of his youth, he often feels all the infirmities of extreme old age; and when not yet in the middle of human life, is got to the end of his own.

If we have attained to manhood, to our full vigour, before we run into the exceſs, from which I am diſſuading; we may, indeed, poſſibly, be many years in breaking a good conſtitution: but then, if a ſudden ſtroke diſpatch us not; if we are not cut off without the leaſt leiſure given us to implore the mercy of heaven; to how much uneaſineſs are we, generally, reſerved—what a variety of painful diſtempers threaten us! All of them there is very little probability we ſhould eſcape; and under which ſoever of them we may labour, we ſhall experience its cure hopeleſs, and its ſeverity the ſaddeſt leſſon, how dear the purchaſe was of our former mirth.

Every time we offend in it, we are firſt madmen, and then idiots; we firſt ſay, and do, a thouſand the moſt ridiculous and extravagant things, and then appear quite void of ſenſe. By annexing theſe conſtant inconveniences to drinking immoderately, it ſeems the deſign of a wiſe Providence to teach us, what we may fear from a habit of it—to give us a foretaſte of the miſeries which it will at length bring upon us, not for a few hours alone, but for the whole remainder of our lives. What numbers have, by hard drinking, fallen into an incur-

able diſtraction! And who was ever for many years a ſot, without deſtroying the quickneſs of his apprehenſion, and the ſtrength of his memory? What mere drivellers have ſome of the beſt capacities become, after a long courſe of exceſs!

As we drink to raiſe our ſpirits, but, by that raiſing, we weaken them; ſo whatever freſh vigour our parts may ſeem to derive from our wine, it is a vigour which waſtes them; which, by being often thus called out, deſtroys its ſource, our natural fancy and understanding. It is like a man's ſpending upon his principal: he may, for a ſeaſon, make a figure much ſuperior to *his*, who ſupports himſelf upon the intereſt of his fortune; but is ſure to be undone, when the other is unhurt.

From all the obſervations which we can make on the human frame, it may be fairly ſuppoſed, that it is not reaſonable to think we can be, for many years enflaming our brains, without injuring them—be continually diſordering the moſt delicate parts of our machine, without impairing them. A lively imagination, a quick apprehenſion, a retentive memory, depend upon parts in our ſtructure, which are more eaſily hurt, than ſuch, whoſe ſound ſtate is neceſſary for the preſervation of mere life: and therefore we perceive thoſe ſeveral faculties often entirely loſt, long before the body drops. The man is very frequently ſeen to ſurvive himſelf—to continue a living creature, after he has, for ſome years, ceaſed to be a rational one. And to this deplorable ſtate nothing is more likely to bring us, than a habit of drunkenneſs; as there is no vice that more immediately affects thoſe organs, by the help of which we apprehend, reaſon, remember, and perform the like acts.

What, *ſixthly*, ought to raiſe in us the utmoſt abhorrence of drunkenneſs is, the conſideration of the many crimes to which it diſpoſes us. He through whoſe veins the inflaming potion has ſpread itſelf, muſt be under a greater temptation to lewdneſs, than you can think him in any other circumſtances: and from the little reaſoning, of which he is then capable, as to the difference of the two crimes, would heſitate no more at adultery than fornication.

Thus, alſo, for immoderate anger, contention, ſcurrility and abuſe, acts of violence, and the moſt injurious treatment of others; they are all offences, into which drunkenneſs is moſt apt to betray us; ſo apt to do it, that you will ſcarcely find a company drinking to exceſs, without many provoking ſpeeches and actions paſſing in it—without more or leſs ſtrife, before it ſeparates. We even perceive the moſt gentle and peaceable, the moſt humane and civilized, when they are ſober, no ſooner intoxicated, than they put off all thoſe commendable qualities, and aſſume, as it were, a new nature—a nature as different from their former, as the moſt untractable and fierceſt of the brute kind are, from the moſt accompliſhed and amiable of our own.

TWO PAPERS *Written by* DR. FRANKLIN.

No. I. ENDORSED, in DR. FRANKLIN's Hand, as follows, viz.

Letter to Abbé SOULAVIE, *occasioned by his sending me some notes he had taken of what I had said to him in conversation on the theory of the earth. I wrote it to set him right in some points wherein he had mistaken my meaning.*

PASSY, *September* 22, 1782.

SIR,

I RETURN the papers with some corrections. I did not find coal mines under the calcareous rock in Derbyshire. I only remarked, that at the lowest part of that rocky mountain, which was in sight, there were oyster shells mixed with the stone; and part of the high county of Derby being probably as much above the level of the sea, as the coal mines of Whitehaven were below, it seemed a proof that there had been a great bouleversement in the surface of that island, some part of it having been depressed under the sea, and other parts, which had been under it, being raised above it. Such changes in the superficial parts of the globe, seemed to me unlikely to happen, if the earth were solid to the centre. I therefore imagined that the internal parts might be a fluid more dense, and of greater specific gravity than any of the solids we are acquainted with; which therefore might swim in or upon that fluid. Thus the surface of the globe would be a shell, capable of being broken and disordered by the violent movements of the fluid on which it rested. And, as air has been compressed by art so as to be twice as dense as water, in which case, if such air and water could be contained in a strong glass vessel, the air would be seen to take the lowest place, and the water to float above and upon it; and, as we know not yet the degree of density to which air may be compressed, and M. Amontons calculated, that its density increasing as it approached the centre in the same proportion as above the surface, it would, at the depth of leagues, be heavier than gold, possibly the dense fluid occupying the internal parts of the globe might be air compressed. And as the force of expansion in dense air when heated, is in proportion to its density; this central air might afford another agent to move the surface, as well as be of use in keeping alive the central fires: tho', as you observe, the sudden rarefaction of water, coming into contact, without those fires, may be an agent sufficiently strong for that purpose, when acting between the incumbent earth and the fluid on which it rests.

If one might indulge imagination in supposing how such a globe was formed, I should conceive, that all the elements in separate particles, being originally mixed in confusion, and occupying a great space, they would (as soon as the Almighty fiat ordained gravity, or the mutual attraction of certain parts, and the mutual repulsion of other parts, to exist) all move towards their common centre: That the air being a fluid whose parts repel each other, tho' drawn to the common centre by their gravity, would be densest towards the cen-

tre, and rarer as more remote; conſequently, all bodies, lighter than the central parts of that air, and immerſed in it, would recede from the centre, and riſe till they arrived at that region of the air, which was of the ſame ſpecific gravity with themſelves, where they would reſt; while other matter, mixed with the lighter air, would deſcend, and the two meeting would form the ſhell of the firſt earth, leaving the upper atmoſphere nearly clear. The original movement of the parts towards their common centre would form a whirl there; which would continue in the turning of the new formed globe upon its axis, and the greateſt diameter of the ſhell would be in its equator. If by any accident afterwards the axis ſhould be changed, the denſe internal fluid, by altering its form, muſt burſt the ſhell and throw all its ſubſtance into the confuſion in which we find it. I will not trouble you at preſent with my fancies concerning the manner of forming the reſt of our ſyſtem. Superior beings ſmile at our theories, and at our preſumption in making them. I will juſt mention that your obſervation of the ferruginous nature of the lava, which is thrown out from the depths of our volcanoes, gave me great pleaſure. It has long been a ſuppoſition of mine, that the iron contained in the ſubſtance of the globe has made it capable of becoming, as it is, a great magnet; that the fluid of magnetiſm exiſts perhaps in all ſpace; ſo that there is a magnetical North and South of the univerſe, as well as of this globe, and that if it were poſſible for a man to fly from ſtar to ſtar, he might govern his courſe by the compaſs; that it was by the power of this general magnetiſm this globe became a particular magnet. In ſoft or hot iron the fluid of magnetiſm is naturally diffuſed equally: when within the influence of a magnet, it is drawn to one end of the iron, made denſer there and rarer at the other. While the iron continues ſoft and hot it is only a temporary magnet: If it cools or grows hard in that ſituation, it becomes a permanent one, the magnetic fluid not eaſily reſuming its equilibrium. Perhaps it may be owing to the permanent magnetiſm of this globe, which it had not at firſt, that its axis is at preſent kept parrallel to itſelf, and not liable to the changes it formerly ſuffered, which occaſioned the rupture of its ſhell, the ſubmerſions and emerſions of its lands, and the confuſion of its ſeaſons. The preſent polar and equatorial diameters differing from each other near ten leagues, it is eaſy to conceive in caſe ſome power ſhould ſhift the axis gradually, and place it in the preſent equator, and make the new equator paſs through the preſent poles, what a ſinking of the waters would happen in the preſent equatorial regions, and what a riſing in the preſent polar regions; ſo that vaſt tracts would be diſcovered that now are under water, and others covered that now are dry, the water riſing and ſinking in the different extremes near five leagues. Such an operation as this poſſibly occaſioned much of Europe, and among the reſt this mountain of Paſſy on which I live, and which is compoſed of limeſtone, rock and ſea-ſhells, to be abandoned by the ſea, and to change its ancient climate, which ſeems to have been a hot one. The globe being now become a perfect magnet, we are perhaps ſafe from any future change of its axis. But we are ſtill ſubject to the accidents on the ſurface, which are occaſi-

oned by a wave in the internal ponderous fluid; and such a wave is produced by the sudden violent explosion you mention, happening from the junction of water and fire under the earth, which not only lifts the incumbent earth that is over the explosion, but impressing with the same force the fluid under it, creates a wave that may run a thousand leagues, lifting, and thereby shaking successively, all the countries under which it passes. I know not whether I have expressed myself so clearly, as not to get out of your sight in these reveries. If they occasion any new enquiries, and produce a better hypothesis, they will not be quite useless. You see I have given a loose to imagination, but I approve much more your method of philosophizing, which proceeds upon actual observation, makes a collection of facts, and concludes no farther than those facts will warrant. In my present circumstances, that mode of studying the nature of the globe is out of my power, and therefore I have permitted myself to wander a little in the wilds of fancy. With great esteem, I have the honour to be, sir, &c.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

P. S. I have heard that chemists can by their art decompose stone and wood, extracting a considerable quantity of water from the one, and air from the other. It seems natural to conclude from this, that water and air were ingredients in their original composition: For men cannot make new matter of any kind. In the same manner may we not suppose, that when we consume combustibles of all kinds, and produce heat or light, we do not create that heat or light; we only decompose a substance which received it originally as a part of its composition? Heat may thus be considered as originally in a fluid state; but, attracted by organized bodies in their growth, becomes a part of the solid. Besides this, I can conceive that in the first assemblage of the particles of which this earth is composed, each brought its portion of the loose heat that had been connected with it, and the whole, when pressed together, produced the internal fire which still subsists.

No. II.—Endorsed.

LOOSE THOUGHTS *on an* UNIVERSAL FLUID, *&c.*

Passy, *June* 25, 1784.

UNIVERSAL space, as far as we know of it, seems to be filled with a subtil fluid, whose motion, or vibration, is called light. This fluid may possibly be the same with that which being attracted by, and entering into other more solid matter, dilates the substance, by separating the constituent particles, and so rendering some solids fluid, and maintaining the fluidity of others: of which fluid when our bodies are totally deprived, they are said to be frozen; when they have a proper quantity, they are in health, and fit to perform all their functions; it is then called natural heat: when too much, it is called fever; and when forced into the body in too great a quantity from without, it gives pain by separating and destroying

the flesh, and is then called burning; and the fluid so entering and acting is called fire.

While organized bodies, animal or vegetable, are augmenting in growth, or are supplying their continual waste, is not this done by attracting and consolidating this fluid called fire, so as to form of it a part of their substance? and is it not a separation of the parts of such substance, which, dissolving its solid state, sets that subtle fluid at liberty, when it again makes its appearance as fire?

For the power of man relative to matter seems limited to the dividing it, or mixing the various kinds of it, or changing its form and appearance by different compositions of it; but does not extend to the making or creating of new matter, or annihilating the old: thus, if fire be an original element, or kind of matter, its quantity is fixed and permanent in the world. We cannot destroy any part of it, or make addition to it; we can only separate it from that which confines it, and so set it at liberty, as when we put wood in a situation to be burnt; or transfer it from one solid to another, as when we make lime by burning stone, a part of the fire dislodged from the wood being left in the stone. May not this fluid, when at liberty, be capable of penetrating and entering into all bodies, organized or not, quitting easily in totality those not organized; and quitting easily in part those which are; the part assumed and fixed remaining till the body is dissolved?

Is it not this fluid which keeps asunder the particles of air, permitting them to approach, or separating them more, in proportion as its quantity is diminished or augmented? Is it not the greater gravity of the particles of air, which forces the particles of this fluid to mount with the matters to which it is attached, as smoke or vapour?

Does it not seem to have a great affinity with water, since it will quit a solid to unite with that fluid, and go off with it in vapour, leaving the solid cold to the touch, and the degree measurable by the thermometer?

The vapour rises attached to this fluid, but at a certain height they separate, and the vapour descends in rain, retaining but little of it, in snow or hail less. What becomes of that fluid? Does it rise above our atmosphere, and mix equally with the universal mass of the same kind? Or does a spherical stratum of it, denser, or less mixed with air, attracted by this globe, and repelled or pushed up only to a certain height from its surface, by the greater weight of air, remain there surrounding the globe, and proceeding with it round the sun?

In such case, as there may be a continuity or communication of this fluid through the air quite down to the earth, is it not by the vibrations given to it by the sun that light appears to us; and may it not be, that every one of the infinitely small vibrations, striking common matter with a certain force, enter its substance, are held there by attraction, and augmented by succeeding vibrations, till the matter has received as much as their force can drive into it?

Is it not thus that the surface of this globe is continually heated by such repeated vibrations in the day, and cooled by the escape of the heat when those vibrations are discontinued in the night, or intercepted and reflected by clouds?

Is it not thus that fire is amaſſed, and makes the greateſt part of the ſubſtance of combuſtible bodies?

Perhaps when this globe was firſt formed, and its original particles took their place at certain diſtances from the centre, in proportion to their greater or leſs gravity, the fluid fire, attracted toward that centre, might in great part be obliged, as lighteſt, to take place above the reſt, and thus form the ſphere of fire above ſuppoſed, which would afterwards be continually diminiſhing by the ſubſtance it afforded to organized bodies, and the quantity reſtored to it again by the burning or other ſeparating of the parts of thoſe bodies?

Is not the natural heat of animals thus produced, by ſeparating in digeſtion the parts of food, and ſetting their fire at liberty?

Is it not this ſphere of fire which kindles the wandering globes that ſometimes paſs through it in our courſe round the ſun, have their ſurface kindled by it, and burſt when their included air is greatly rarefied by the heat on their burning ſurfaces?

HINTS *for guarding againſt the* DESTRUCTION *of* APPLES *by the* CANKER-WORM.

THE deſtruction of apples by the canker-worm, in various parts of the country, is a ſerious and alarming calamity; and it is the duty of every man to contribute his mite towards reſtraining and avoiding the evil.

About a year ago, a reſpectable gentleman, who is more than eighty years of age, remarked to me, "that this ſpecies of worm never touch apple-trees which ſtand on clay." I caſt my eye over the orchards in this town, and found the remark verified by facts. In the centre of the town, where the ſoil is moſtly a pure ſtiff clay, not a tree was affected by this devouring animal, and this gentleman informed me, the fact had been the ſame ever ſince his remembrance.

I have lately made a journey to the eaſtward, and am, by particular obſervations, convinced of the truth of the fact. I find, that wherever orchards ſtand on clay, or a cold, moiſt, ſpringy ſoil, the trees remain untouched. A gravelly ſoil is not friendly to theſe worms; but if the gravel is mixed with a ſoft light earth, the trees thereon are conſiderably injured. On the other hand, gravel, mixed with a hard clayed earth, never admits the worm. In ſhort, the lighter the earth where the trees ſtand, the earlier the worm appears, and the more complete their ravages.

Theſe facts ſuggeſt to farmers the propriety of chooſing ſuch ſpots on their farms for orchards, as do not admit the worm; for hard clay and cold moiſt earth do not furniſh this animal with agreeable lodgings.

I would further juſt hint to farmers, who have not a choice of ſoils for orchards, the poſſibility that, by plowing or digging up the earth under the trees, juſt before winter, and expoſing the worm to the action of rain and froſt, they may perhaps deſtroy it, or ſo leſſen the number, as to ſave the fruit of the ſucceeding year.

HARTFORD, *June* 1792. VICTOR.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

IMPARTIAL REVIEW

Of American Publications.

The MISCELLANEOUS ESSAYS *and* OCCASIONAL WRITINGS *of* FRANCIS HOPKINSON, *Esq.* Philad. 3 vol. 8vo. Price, in boards, 4 dols.

MOST of the eſſays contained in theſe volumes were formerly publiſhed in detail; and many of them were ſo generally admired at the time, as to eſtabliſh the literary reputation of the author, and procure him a large portion of well-earned fame. This collection, therefore, cannot fail to be well received by the citizens of the united ſtates, who will long continue to revere the memory of Mr. H. whoſe diſtinguiſhed talents were exerted to promote the beſt intereſts of his country, in the moſt trying emergencies. His writings ſhow him to have been an early, an active, and a perſevering whig; and a powerful advocate for the eſtabliſhment of our preſent form of federal government. Some of his moſt valuable performances on political ſubjects are in the allegorical form, a mode of writing in which he has been equalled by few.

The ſubjects of theſe eſſays being almoſt as various as the eſſays themſelves are numerous, we ſhall not ſo far deſcend to particulars, as to attempt to give an account of the ſeveral pieces. Nor does ſuch minuteneſs appear neceſſary, when we conſider that the writings and literary character of the author are very generally known. Suffice it to obſerve, generally, that the leading characteriſtics of Mr. Hopkinſon's writings are, extraordinary verſatility of genius, combined with extenſive ſcience; brilliancy of imagination, connected with a ſound judgment and good taſte; and genuine humour, uncontaminated by that low and trifling ſpecies of wit, which can yield pleaſure to none but vulgar and frivolous minds.

We are informed, in a note prefixed to the firſt volume, that the ſeveral pieces were prepared for the preſs by the author, before his death; and that they are now publiſhed from his manuſcripts, in the dreſs in which he left them. But had he lived to ſuperintend the publication of them himſelf, we think it probable that he would either have reviſed or expunged ſome of them, which were written to anſwer purpoſes of a temporary nature; and others, in which particular characters are ſeverely ſatirized. In our opinion, theſe caſt a ſhade over the ſplendour of his works. In juſtice to the memory of Mr. H. we ſhall ſtate one fact, which ſupports our opinion, that ſundry alterations would have been made, had he lived to reviſe his literary productions. The editor of a daily paper, which was eſtabliſhed in this city ſome time after the publication of Mr. Hopkinſon's celebrated allegory of "The New-Roof," applied to him for a correct copy of that performance, which he propoſed to inſert in his gazette. Mr. H. complied with his requeſt; but was particularly careful to

strike out the concluding observations, in which he had burlesqued the ravings of a declamatory writer, in the public papers. This was certainly a judicious and laudable omission. For, besides that the name of the declamatory writer alluded to had become publicly known, the force and beauty of the allegory were diminished, by a conclusion which was beneath the dignity of that inimitable performance, and which had no immediate connection with it. And yet the allegory is now published in its original form; and accompanied with the essay which is the subject of the burlesque.

Of these volumes, the first and second consist of miscellaneous prose; the third commences with judgments given by Mr. Hopkinson, in the admiralty of Pennsylvania, and concludes with his poetical writings.

Should any of our readers be unacquainted with Mr. H's manner of writing, the following extract will afford them a tolerable specimen of that elegant humour, for which he was so much and so justly admired by all who knew him.

☞ CONGRESS had, from some disgust, suddenly removed from Philadelphia to Princeton in New-Jersey: but, finding themselves but ill accommodated there, they took into consideration the fixing upon some suitable place for their permanent residence. In canvassing this question, the eastern and southern delegates could not agree on a situation equally convenient for both. On motion of Mr. G—, it was at length determined, that congress should have two places of alternate residence: one on the banks of the Potowmack, and the other on the banks of the Delaware: and it was resolved, that congress should not remain less than six months, nor more than two years at either of these places at one time. But as there was no town on the Potowmack fit for their reception, they, for the present, adjourned to Annapolis. This circumstance gave occasion for the following publication.

INTELLIGENCE EXTRAORDINARY.

THE great revolution that hath taken place in America, will undoubtedly involve many circumstances of considerable importance and curious speculation. None, perhaps, more remarkable than this, that the philosophical world may expect to be entertained with a phenomenon in mechanics, altogether new, and which cannot fail to engage universal attention.

The Americans having observed the great irregularities to which the political systems of Europe are liable, have invented a method of regulating the affairs of their empire by *actual mechanism*. For this purpose an immense pendulum hath been constructed, of which the point of suspension is fixed somewhere in the orbit of the planet *Mars*, and the *Bob* is composed of certain heterogeneous matter, of great specific gravity, called the *American congress*.

This miraculous pendulum is to vibrate between Annapolis, on the Chesapeak, and Trenton, on the Delaware; a range of about 180 miles.

It will require the most subtle mathematical investigations to ascertain the true path of this political bob: for it is pretty certain that it will not move in a *straight line*, nor in a cycloid, nor in a parabola, nor in an hyperbola, nor in any other known curve; but will have a motion peculiar to itself, forming a *crooked line*, the properties of which cannot be reduced to any of the rules within the present system of mathematics.

Although the oscillations of this pendulum will not be performed in, yet they will average equal times. Two vibrations must be made in two years: but these vibrations may bear no determinate proportion to each other; for their relative proportions will depend entirely upon the specific gravity of the bob: which being, from the nature of its composition, very variable, will render the oscillations equally variable with respect to each other: and, which is very extraordinary, although in all other instances, the more ponderous a body is, the more it is disposed to rest, and the shorter and slower will its vibrations be when suspended, it will be the reverse in the present

ease; for the bob will be inclined to motion more or less, in proportion as the matter of which it may be composed shall happen to be more or less dull and heavy.

By the oscillations of this pendulum and its *heavy* bob, are thirteen wheels of the American machine to be regulated. And, it is expected, that the different combinations of motions, the actings and counter-actings, the checks and counter-checks of the moving parts, will so correct and balance each other, as to produce, in the final result, a movement so perfectly equable, that the great *desiderata*, viz. the perpetual motion, and the discovery of longitude, will no longer puzzle the brains and drain the purses of seekers in science.

But the most entertaining consequence of this improvement in politics will be, that it will render visible the locomotive faculties of the several nations in Europe; so far at least as the same may be ascertained by their respective ambassadors and envoys. For, as they must all follow the movements of the American bob, they will do this according to the genius of the countries to which they respectively belong. The volatile and active will always keep within reach of the object of pursuit; the careless and indolent will loiter by the way; and the dull and phlegmatic be so distanced, that by the time they shall have arrived at one of the limits of oscillation, they will find it necessary to tack about and follow the pendulum in its return to the other.

In order to render this alternate peregrination as convenient as may be to their ministers, the several governments of Europe are to raise by contribution the sum of four hundred thousand guineas, for the purpose of levelling the roads between Annapolis and Trenton, building bridges, and erecting houses of residence in each of those towns, if those can properly be called houses of residence wherein the inhabitants are to have no rest.

Some have thought that when this *monstrous* pendulum shall be once set in motion, it will not be possible to confine it within the proposed limits; but that it will, by its great weight (contrary to the usual laws of gravitation,) enlarge its field of action, and acquire a velocity which will cause it to swing from New-Hampshire to Georgia.

A further improvement hath also been suggested; which is this—Many philosophers have been of opinion, that the most regular and proper motion of a pendulum would be to cause it to swing in a horizontal circle, and not in a vertical plane, as the common practice is, so that the string or rod may describe a cone, of which the apex will be in the point of suspension, and the base formed by the circumference of the circular plane in which the bob moves.

Should this idea prove just (which Mr. Rittenhouse has been directed to ascertain) the revolutions of America will be performed in a circle, whose diameter, north and south, will be from a point in St. John's river, Nova-Scotia, to the mouth of the great river Mississippi, and west and east, from the Lake in the Woods, to an unknown distance in the Atlantic ocean. The only inconvenience will be the cutting a circular road through mountains and forests, for the accommodation of foreign ministers and the officers of congress; and the providing sufficient ships at the point where the said line of circumvolution shall leave the continent, and enter on the waters of the Atlantic, in order that their excellencies, and their honours, may be attendant on this sublunary planet in every part of its orbit. A. B.

Oct. 1783.

In a commencement oration, written by our author, we find the following strictures on the modern system of education.

After the youngster hath been taught to spell, read, and write, in his mother tongue, he ascends the first step of learned education.—The *Latin language* is the object, to attain which, a Latin grammar is put into the poor boy's hands. This grammar is called the rudiments or foundation of that language: by which one might suppose, that the grammar had been given by inspiration, and the Romans derived their language from it. But the fact is just the reverse; for in every language, the grammar is, and must necessarily be, the result, and not the origin of that language: but notwithstanding this undeniable truth, the Latin must be inculcated according to the method and discipline of the schools, *a posteriori*, in more senses than one.—Well! through this grammar, at all events, the bewildered pupil must wade, groping for a year or two in utter darkness, and learning by rote a complicated system of rules, the propriety or application of which it is impossible for him to see in any instance.

Theſe rules are framed partly in elegant proſe, and partly in much more elegant verſe, in order, I ſuppoſe, to inſinuate to the ſtudent ſome taſte for Latin poetry, whilſt he is learning the rudiments of the language. If I had not, ladies, a reſpectful regard for your ears, and no ſmall tenderneſs for my own teeth, I would give you a ſample of our grammar verſification.

After theſe rules have been got by rote, as I ſaid before, it may be thought that there is nothing more neceſſary to the knowledge of the Latin tongue—But alas! this is only the beginning of troubles—The rules muſt not only be got by memory, but the exceptions alſo to thoſe rules—Now, good people, you muſt know that theſe exceptions are ſo very numerous, that, in many caſes, it is immaterial which you chooſe for a ſtandard, the rule itſelf, or the exception.

The excellency of this method of teaching a language, by means of its grammar, may be illuſtrated by a familiar parallel. You muſt know, ladies, that when a man ſtands, or walks, or performs any motions of the body, ſuch poſitions and motions are all reducible to mathematical principles. In all caſes, it is neceſſary that what is called the centre of gravity ſhould be ſupported; were it otherwiſe, the perſon muſt unavoidably fall to the ground: and thus are all our movements reducible to ſyſtem. Now, if the preſent mode of education is right, (and who dares aſſert it is not?) you ſhould not ſuffer your children to walk, or even attempt to walk, before they have learned theſe rules, for which purpoſe you muſt neceſſarily provide mathema ical nurſes, and geomatrical dancing maſters. Oh the excellence of learning! What delight muſt it afford the fond parent, to ſee young maſter ſtanding like the rafters of a houſe, and miſs dancing in triangles, rhomboides, and trapeziums!

But to proceed. We will ſuppoſe the young ſtudent hath made ſome advances in the knowledge of the Latin language, according to the method propoſed. The firſt obſervable conſequence is, that he loſes, or at leaſt gains no ground in, a taſte for the elegancies of his native tongue. His diction becomes ſtiff and aukward, and his handwriting intolerable. So that whilſt he is ſtudying the anatomy of a dead language, he remains a ſtranger to the beauties of the living.

It is probable that there are many amongſt the ladies, whom I have now the honour to addreſs, who have never ſtudied grammar, or know any thing of its rules; and yet I venture to affirm, that a few lines, written by your fair hands, and dictated by gentle nature, ſhall convey more lively ſenſibilities, and ſhall find a ſhorter way to the heart, than a whole page—aye, or forty of them—compoſed by the moſt learned grammarian, with *Dilworth* on his right hand, and *Entick* on his left.

In the mean time, the aſſiduous youth reads *Ovid's Metamorphoſes*, for the improvement of his morals; and learns from *Horace* to be chaſte and temperate. *That* time which might be uſefully employed in ſtudying the hiſtories of thoſe nations with whom we are, or may be connected, is conſumed in reading the delectable and lamentable ſtory of *Æneas* and queen *Dido*. The one, a hero of ſo inſignificant a caſt, that all the laudable ingredients of his character may be compriſed in the words *Pius Æneas*; and the other, to ſpeak delicately, not the moſt ſhining example of female virtue and moderation. The one, a diſcourteous knight, and the other a furious enamorata.

It juſt occurs to me, that Dido's greateſt misfortune was, that ſhe lived in a barbarous age, when lawyers were not to be had for love or money. Had her famous amour happened in our day, ſhe might have recovered at leaſt, £.7 0 damages;* which, all things conſidered, would have been much better than cutting her throat upon a wood-pile—as deſperate Dido did—This by the bye.

The young ſtudent is at length fitted for the higher claſſes of ſcience. He learns mathematicks, geography, natural philoſophy, logic, ethics, and metaphyſics.

With reſpect to the three firſt, I would only ſay—That if they were diveſted of ſome ſcientific pedantry (I mean as they are taught in the ſchools), they are worthy the attention of a rational mind, inaſmuch as they advance the knowledge of truth; for of all valuable things, *truth* is the moſt valuable.

But of all the ſyſtems of complicated nonſenſe, that ever puzzled the buſy brains of mortal man, *logic* is ſurely the moſt inſignificant. An art which no ingenuity can apply to any one uſeful purpoſe of life. Imagine to yourſelves, gentle hearers, a ſociety of *logicians*, whoſe converſation in the common occurrences of life ſhould be conducted in *ſyllogiſtic* mode and form. The learned houſe-keeper goes to market, and

* This alludes to a circumſtance of the time, ſomething like the caſe of queen *Dido*.

endeavours to perſuade the butcher to lower the price of his mutton in *celarent*; the butcher enforces his demand in *barbara*. The logical lover alſo attacks his dulcinea in *form*. He aſſures her, in *particular affirmatives*, that he is enamoured of her charms; and from theſe *premiſes*, draws an artful *concluſion*, that ſhe ought to encourage his paſſion, and return his love. The lady replies, in *univerſal negatives*. The gallant then plays off his whole battery in a compacted *ſorites*. The lady anſwers only in the *ſimple form*—a weakneſs is diſcovered in her *middle term*—ſhe is reduced to a *dilemma*, and ſurrenders at diſcretion.

In ſuch a proceſs, what is to become of Cupid and his darts! What is to become of the logic of the eyes, and a thouſand nameleſs expreſſions of the feeling of the heart, which nature alone can dictate! What is to become of them! Why they are entirely out of the queſtion. Syllogiſms—invincible ſyllogiſms, muſt ſupply their place. What is learning good for, unleſs it makes us wiſer than nature!

But I may be told that logic never was deſigned for ſuch purpoſes; and that its uſe is the diſcovery of truth, and the detection of error—Here I join iſſue—and am bold to aſſert, that from the days of Ariſtotle to the preſent moment, mankind are not indebted to *logic* for the diſcovery of any one uſeful truth, or the detection of any one dangerous error—and further—that no man ever was *convinced* by a ſyllogiſm—But I obſerve their reverences begin to frown—I ſhall, therefore, not urge this ſubject any further.

Ethics and *metaphyſics* bring up the rear of a learned education. It would tire your patience, my indulgent hearers, ſhould I enter upon a detail of all the whimſical abſurdities with which theſe ſciences abound. If a man ſhould conduct himſelf through life, according to the ſtrict rules of *ethics*, he would be juſt as ridiculous as the knight of *La Mancha*, governing himſelf in the moſt common occurrences by the ſolemn formalities of chivalry.

As to *metaphyſics*, it is a viſionary ſyſtem, wherein uncertain concluſions are drawn from uncertain premiſes, and in which the very terms uſed have no determinate meaning. The whole is an ingenious fabric built in air; having no real, known foundation, whereon to reſt: not unlike the Pagan creed, that the world ſtands upon the horns of a bull; the bull on the back of an elephant; the elephant on a great tortoiſe; and the great tortoiſe upon nothing.

It muſt be owned, however, that we are indebted to metaphyſics for ſome very curious and entertaining riddles: ſuch as—that *infinite* carried beyond *infinity* becomes *finite*—that one *infinity* may be twice as long as another *infinity*—that *ſoul* is not *matter*, and that *matter* is not *ſoul*; and in ſhort, that it is no matter whether there be any ſoul or not—Oh! the heights and the depths of learning!

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MODERN CHIVALRY: *containing the* ADVENTURES *of* CAPTAIN JOHN FARRAGO, *and* TEAGUE O'REGAN, *his ſervant. Vol II. By H. H. Brackenridge.* Philadelphia, 1792.—Price, half a dollar.

MR. B. purſuing the plan of his firſt volume*, continues, in this, his ſatires upon various deſcriptions of men. His remarks are occaſionally whimſical and ludicrous, but have ſeldom the appearance of ill nature. He ſeems to have been, for the moſt part, in a laughing humour, when he wrote; and we believe few perſons will peruſe the work, without alſo experiencing riſible emotions.

We are ſorry to obſerve, that the captain's travels are not very remarkable for variety. Some favourite ſcenes, which were exhibited in the firſt volume, are again brought forward, with little variation, in this. Peter Pindar is not more deſirous of ridiculing, again and again, kings and royal academicians, than our author appears diſpoſed to ſatirize popular elections, the American Philoſophical

* For an account of the firſt volume, ſee the Aſylum for February 1792, page 89.

Society, ignorance in the clergy, and Indian treaties, &c. Not satisfied with the ſtrictures upon theſe ſeveral ſubjects, in his firſt volume, he has again attacked them in this. Several new characters, however, are brought into view; and amidſt much light reading, new and valuable obſervations frequently occur. Mr. B. affects to write merely for the ſake of ſtyle, but no perſon, who has peruſed the work, can, for a moment, look upon this pretenſion in a ſerious light.

The *firſt book* contains remarks on popular elections; particularly on a diſpoſition, which is ſaid to be prevalent among the people, to raiſe low and ignorant characters to the higheſt public ſtations. This book alſo contains obſervations on the vanity and ſelf importance of the Engliſh nation, who are ſaid to undervalue all the world beſide.

The adventures of the captain and Teague at the houſe of an elderly lady, where they had put up for the night, occupy the *ſecond book*. As a ſpecimen of our author's deſcriptive talent, we ſhall extract his account of this lady's perſon.

She was a good looking woman, being about fifty-ſeven years of age, with gray hairs, but a green fillet on her left eye brow, as it ſeems the eye on that ſide was ſubject to a defluction of rheum, which made it expedient to cover it. It could not be ſaid that her teeth were bad, becauſe ſhe had none. If ſhe wanted the roſe on her cheek, ſhe had it on her noſe, ſo that it all came to the ſame thing. Nothing could be ſaid againſt her chin, but it uſed her mouth ill in getting above it. She was not very tall, but what ſhe wanted in height, ſhe made up in breadth; ſo that multiplying one dimenſion by the other, ſhe might be conſidered as a very ſizeable woman.

This handſome perſonage became paſſionately enamoured of Teague, who felt an equal flame, (for ſhe was very wealthy) and they were to have been united in wedlock next morning; but the captain, unwilling to loſe his ſervant, found means to diſſuade him from the match.

The man (ſaid the captain) who ſurrenders himſelf to the arms of a ſuperannuated female, for the ſake of fortune, acts a part not leſs unworthy and diſgraceful, than the proſtitute who does the ſame for half a crown. While a man has the uſe of his limbs and arms, he ought to be above ſuch mercenary motives; and true happineſs can be found only in congruity, and what is natural.

The *third book* is an admirable ſatire upon thoſe ignorant preachers, who bellow forth to their ſtill more ignorant hearers, an incoherent and unintelligible jargon, which kind of rant paſſes frequently for good *practical* preaching.

The *fourth book* opens with ſome ſtrictures on city elections: in which wealth, particularly in the funds, is ſaid to be the candidates' chief recommendation.—The remaining part of this book is occupied by the truly pathetic ſtory of a lovely, but unfortunate female.

In the *fifth book*, a negro member of the philoſophical ſociety is introduced, delivering an annual oration to the ſociety, in which he endeavours to ſhow that the original complexion of the human ſpecies was black.—In order to reconcile the various theories on this ſubject, Mr. B. wittily conjectures, that Adam was a white man and Eve a black woman; and that ſome of their children took after the father, and others after the mother.—This book alſo contains obſervations on the doctrine of univerſal ſalvation; a curious ſpecimen of debates in congreſs; remarks on the decay of learning, particularly of the Greek language, in our ſeminaries of education; and a burleſque on Indian treaties.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

HISTORICAL SKETCH *of the* PROCEEDINGS *of* CONGRESS, *in the ſeſſion which commenced, at Philadelphia, on the 24th of October*, 1791.

(Continued from page 64.)

ON the 18th of November, the committee, appointed for that purpoſe, brought in "A bill, apportioning the repreſentation of the people of the united ſtates, according to the firſt enumeration;" agreeably to which, the ratio was to be that of one repreſentative for every thirty thouſand inhabitants. The bill was taken up in committee of the whole; and on ſundry motions for increaſing the ratio to thirty-five, to thirty-four, and to thirty-three thouſand, lengthy debates took place; which, however, were of nearly ſimilar import with thoſe which we have already given. We ſhall, however, ſtate the ſubſtance of the debate on a motion of Mr. Macon, for increaſing the ratio to thirty-*five* thouſand.

Mr. *Dayton* ſaid that he ſhould be in favour of the amendment, not becauſe it was a number the moſt agreeable to him, for he confeſſed that even this would produce a more numerous repreſentation than he could have wiſhed, but becauſe a greater number would be leſs likely to meet the approbation of the committee. There was one point of view, Mr. Dayton obſerved, in which the ſubject had not yet been exhibited by any gentleman in the courſe of debate, but in which, on account of its magnitude and importance, it ought to be critically examined. The ſenate, he ſaid, were conſidered as the repreſentatives of the ſtates, or of the ſtate governments. The houſe of repreſentatives were ſuppoſed to contain, under certain qualifications, a pure repreſentation of the people: ſuch was the appertionment of its members, with reſpect to the unequal diſtricts or ſtates into which this country was divided, as to give the three great ſtates a very predominant influence upon that floor. They had only to combine their ſtrength, and to aſſociate almoſt any one of the other eleven ſtates with them, in order to enſure ſucceſs to any favourite project that they might have in view. He was aware, that it would be anſwered by gentlemen, that ſuch a combination was not likely to take place between ſtates ſo diſtant in point of ſituation, and differing in local intereſts and circumſtances. He had been ever ſlow, he ſaid, in the prediction of evil—but reaſoning from the temper and diſpoſition of man, and judging from paſt obſervation and experience, he would venture to pronounce, without any pretenſion to the ſpirit of prophecy, that the great ſtates would thus combine their influence, whenever they ſhould deem it for their advantage, and that the intereſts of the other ſtates would of conſequence become the ſacrifice. Thoſe ſtates then that are thus expoſed, of which number he conſidered at leaſt two thirds of thoſe which now formed the union, would find their only ſecurity and protection againſt the effects of ſuch combination in the ſenate. Would it, he aſked, be conſiſtent with prudence or with ſafety, for thoſe very ſtates to aſſent to a meaſure directly tending to weaken, if not deſtroy that ſecurity? Even now, he ſaid, the ſenate would have need of all its firmneſs in continuing to oppoſe any act, in the carrying of which the houſe ſhould be determined to perſevere. But what, he enquired, would be the conſequence, when the increaſe ſo ardently wiſhed for by many gentlemen ſhould have taken place? Would the ſenate have fortitude enough, even where they thought they had juſt cauſe, ſtedfaſtly to counteract the will and determined purpoſe of a body conſiſting of two hundred members, boaſting to derive their appointments from a purer, and from the pureſt ſource, calling themſelves the repreſentatives of the great body of the people, and profeſſing to ſpeak the ſenſe of their conſtituents?

Let 30,000 be adopted as the ratio of repreſentation, and he heſitated not, he ſaid, to declare, that whenever the repreſentatives ſhould think proper to reſolve any important point of diſpute into a queſtion of firmneſs between the two houſes, the ſenate muſt yield to their ſuperior weight, and ſhrink from the unequal conteſt. In the event of their defeat, in a ſingle inſtance, the independence of that branch would be materially affected, and the legiſlative balance ſhaken in its centre.

These dangers, Mr. Dayton further observed, were by no means imaginary, but would too soon be realized, if the house continued to increase by fifties, in the manner they were beginning.

If the motion under consideration, for increasing the ratio, and lessening the number of representatives, should prove unsuccessful, their reliance, he said, would then be upon the senate. That body, he was sure, was too mindful of their own privileges and importance, to make a voluntary and deliberate surrender of their independence—they were too regardful of the interest of their constituents, to assent to an act giving an undue weight to that branch of the legislature in which the great states had such unreasonable influence. If, however, in this, his last reliance, he should be disappointed, and the bill be likely to pass both houses, he hoped the yeas and nays would be entered upon the journals, that it might be known hereafter, when the events he had predicted should have taken place, who it was that had thus given up the union to the control of three or four of its members; who were the men that had voted for the extraordinary increase of one branch, at the expense of the independence of the other, and thereby destroyed that equilibrium of the government, upon the preservation of which, the fairest hopes of its well-wishers were founded.

Mr. *Gerry*, in reply to the gentleman from New-Jersey, said he was surprised to hear the remarks which he made, when he recollected his being a member of the convention; in which it must be remembered by that gentleman, that the larger states consented to placing the small states on a par with them in the senate, to obviate the difficulty which the smaller states objected against the large representations from the larger states. He said the independence of the senate was secured by the constitution—and he was not apprehensive that the increase proposed would overwhelm that branch of the government, or lessen their importance, or shake their firmness. The gentleman had talked of combinations in the larger states—but he presumed no facts could be produced to support such an apprehension.

The proposed increase in the representation was founded on the principles of justice and equity, it was strictly agreeable to the spirit and design of the constitution, which contemplated an increase, in some degree proportionate to the increased population of the states—he hoped, therefore, that the constitution would be fairly and honourably carried into effect.

Mr. *Boudinot* was not yet convinced, from all the arguments he had heard, that by increasing the number of representatives to 113, as proposed by the bill, the wants, wishes, and interests of their constituents, would be more fully embraced, than by adopting the amendment then under consideration. It had not yet been taken into the account, that a certain species of property in three or four of the states (slaves) would be represented in the next congress, if the bill passed, by at least 12 members, above the proportion of other states, whose property (though of superior value) was not entitled by the constitution to any representation at all. That he did not mean to find fault with the constitution in this respect, but to make it the rule of his conduct, although in the construction of it, he would not increase the evil, when two extremes were given, and the intermediate number was optional. He had said, and he rested on the constitution for the proof, that it contemplated one member for each state as the lowest, and the ratio of one for 30,000 persons as the highest numbers That the convention in settling the house of representatives, without a precise knowledge of the amount of the citizens of the union, had done it in a certain proportion to the number of senators, which he had thought a good rule to go by, till the proposed amendment to the constitution was ratified by three-fourths of the states; but as gentlemen seemed to think that this would soon take place, he had consented to agree to the ratio of 34,000, which would give 100 members. This would accord with the spirit of the amendment to the constitution, and prevent the necessity of passing any other act when the amendment should be completed. He was therefore in favour of inserting *four* after *thirty*, or any ratio that would confine the number of representatives to 100, or under.

Mr. *Lawrance* remarked, in answer to Mr. Dayton's objections, that the states were disproportionate respecting territory, and consequently were so as to the number of people. That an equality would take place amongst the people of the several states by the ratio proposed, although more members would come from some states than from others. He mentioned that every member of the house of representatives

good in relation to the people of America, and ought to consult the interest of the whole, and not the particular interest of the state in which he was elected. Should this general principle operate, and which, he supposed, ought to actuate each member, no danger was to be apprehended from a combination, as the general good was the object of consideration. If this should not be the prevailing principle, it might be the interest of the states to have as great a number of representatives as could be obtained; yet, he supposed, unless a division of territory took place, the people in each state would be entitled to be represented in proportion to the numbers in each; and the danger that it was supposed would exist, could not be readily remedied. He also observed, that he imagined the senate would not be subject to the influence suggested. The senate was an independent part of the legislature, and would decide all questions that came before them, as the judgments of the members should dictate. So long as a reciprocal negative existed, as to the acts of either branch of the legislature, he hoped we should find firmness in each to decide properly. The senate had frequently rejected the bills of the house, and had amended others—some very important ones: and the influence of the members of the house of representatives did not operate on their decisions. The objection to the proposition, as not being agreeable to the amendment proposed to the constitution, he observed, was not well founded. He explained his ideas respecting the nature of the amendment, and concluded that the proportion was conformable to it; and observed, that the nature of the amendment was contemplated, when the proposition respecting the ratio was made.

Some amendments to the bill were reported to the house, by the committee, and agreed to; but every attempt to increase the ratio of representation proved ineffectual. On motion that the bill should pass, it was, on the 23d of November, resolved in the affirmative—*yeas* 43; *nays* 12. It was then transmitted to the senate for their concurrence.

The senate passed the bill with amendments; the principal of which was, that the ratio of representation should be, one representative for *thirty-three* thousand inhabitants. This amendment was the subject of a very lengthy debate, in the house of representatives. On motion to agree to this amendment—

Mr. *Gerry* observed, that the bill had passed both the committee of the whole, and the house, by a large majority. The principle, as he was informed, on which the amendment had taken place in the senate, was to reduce the fractions which would result from the ratio proposed by the house; but he said this difficulty had been fully considered in the house. The representation, every body knows, is now unequal; and it must be submitted to for two years longer—and now it is proposed, at that period, to deprive the people of that representation to which they are entitled by the constitution!

He thought it was extraordinary, that, after the ratio proposed in the bill had been agreed to by the house, by so large a majority, a proposition to alter it should have been agitated and carried in the senate. Till some better reason than he had heard assigned should be offered, he should be against concurring with the senate. He moved, therefore, that the house disagree to the amendment of the senate. The motion was seconded by Mr White.

Mr. *Livermore* was in favour of agreeing to the amendment: he enlarged on the inequality in the representation, from the great fractional numbers which would result from the ratio of 30,000. He was fully of opinion that the public business could be full as well transacted by 105 members, the number which would be produced by a ratio of 33,000, as by 112 or 113, the number arising from the ratio of 30,000.

Mr. *Benson* said there was one idea, which, if it had been considered in time, might have been adopted, and would perhaps have given very general satisfaction; and that was, that the representatives of the united states should amount to a certain number, according to the whole number of the people, say one to 30,000: this would have given a surplus number, which might have been assigned to those states that have the largest fractional numbers. He had formerly, he said, voted for 30,000; but as the principle of equality was more particularly attended to in the amendment, he should now vote for the ratio proposed by the senate. He observed, that some states were stationary; and the increased representation of the larger states, when once established, never would be receded from—this ought to be taken into serious consideration.

Mr. *Madison* observed, that the idea of diminishing the fractional parts appeared to be the only reason for the alteration proposed by the senate. The aggregate of these fractions only had been taken into consideration; but, if the fractions of any particular states should be augmented by the amendment, he conceived that the argument amounted to no good reason for agreeing to it—and this, he said, would evidently be the case.

Mr. *Williamson* was opposed to a concurrence. He observed, in general, that the operation of the amendment was to diminish the fractions to the eastward, and increase those to the southward. The southern states, he said, had suffered so much under the harrow of speculation, that he hoped no measures would be adopted to lessen the means of information, to the people of those states, by denying them that proportion in the representation to which they were entitled. He regretted that some of the southern states were not fully represented at this time in the senate—he thought it probable, that a different decision, in that case, would have taken place.

Mr. *White* observed, that the amendment would operate generally against the larger states.

Mr. *Sedgwick* differed from those opposed to the amendment; in his statements respecting the fractional parts to be produced by 33,000. He said they were fewer on the whole than would result from any other number between 30 and 40 thousand, and those numbers both included; and this, he said, figures would demonstrate. Hence he deduced a greater degree of equality, and relative justice between the several parts of the union. He disclaimed all local motives, and suggested the propriety of gentlemen forbearing any imputations of that kind, as totally alien from the subject.

Mr. *Boudinot* defended the amendment, and observed that the senate were in the legal exercise of their office when they passed it, and had most undoubtedly a right so to do.

He read several calculations, to shew that the aggregate of the fractions would be reduced upwards of 90 thousand, by a ratio of 33 thousand, and that the fractions in every state, except one, would be diminished also by it.

Mr. *Findley* said he had expected to hear something new on the subject, to induce an alteration in the opinion of the house, but had heard nothing. Fractions, said he, were fully considered before, both in the house and in the committee. This he considered as one of the lesser matters pertaining to the subject. He said the best way would have been to have settled the ratio, without knowing the numbers of the people in the several states; though that could not be done, as the numbers were known; yet, he said, he had made it the rule of his conduct in voting. The principle being established, there would be no room for combinations, nor any ground for complaints and reproaches, respecting either southern or northern interests. He was for adhering to the principle, as that contemplated in the constitution—and this he conceived the house had done, and he hoped they would not depart from it; and as to fractions, in competition with that principle, he considered them of very little consequence. He did not deny but a smaller number of representatives would be competent to doing the public business; but dispatch of public business, and a republican representation of the people, he conceived were distinct things. He, therefore, should have been in favour of a larger representation.

He controverted the right of the senate to decide for the house, in regard to this question. It was not, he said, a question of right and privilege. It appertained principally to the representative body.

He then considered the question, as it respected the senate; and, he thought, that a large representation was necessary, as a barrier to the influence of that body. Nor do I, said he, think this an unreasonable jealousy, when the constitution of human nature is considered. The constitution of the united states is express on the subject; and now is the time when the people ought to enjoy the advantages of the representation of one to thirty thousand.

Another consideration to induce a large representation, he deduced from the accumulation of money capitals in the united states, which, said he, have been increased beyond all parallel. The influence of these capitals will find its way into the house. He hoped no alteration would be made in the determination of the majority of the members.

Mr. *Goodhue* ſaid, the difference between the reſult of the two ratios was ſo ſmall, that he did not conceive it would conſtitute a ſufficient reaſon for diſagreeing to the amendment; he ſtated that the difference between the ſouthern and northern ſtates, on the ratio of 30,000, was beyond all reaſon in favour of the ſouthern ſtates; whereas the difference on that of 33,000 was very ſmall indeed, in favour of the northern ſtates, which evidently demonſtrated that the principle of equality was involved in agreeing to the amendment of the ſenate.

Mr. *Hillhouſe* ſtated various particulars to ſhew the inequality of the repreſentation by 30,000, particularly as it reſpects the ſmaller ſtates. He ſaid he rejoiced that the ſenate had given their opinion on the ſubject; they had a right to do it; they are, ſaid he, the repreſentatives of the people; and, on this queſtion, are probably more impartial judges than this houſe.

Mr. *Gerry* ſtill ſupported his motion for a diſagreement. He ſtated a caſe to ſhew, that, in the ordinary courſe of population, a ſtate at the next enumeration, which now contains 330,000, will then have a much larger fraction, by a ratio of 33,000, than any now contemplated.

He ſuppoſed the ſenate had a different intereſt in this buſineſs from that of the houſe. The larger ſtates not being repreſented in the ſenate, and the repreſentation of thoſe ſtates which are ſtationary, or nearly ſo, being full, is the reaſon of this propoſed amendment.

Mr. *Williamſon* ſtill contended, that the deduction from the bill was two members from the eaſtern, and four from the ſouthern ſtates, which plainly ſhewed that the amendment was in favour of the eaſtern ſtates; and added, that if the ſouthern ſtates had been repreſented in the ſenate, the bill would not have been ſent back.

Mr. *Niles* ſuggeſted an amendment to the amendment of the ſenate, which was to ſtrike out *one* after the word Delaware, and to inſert *two*. This, he obſerved, he was inſtrumental to move, from the conſideration of the manifeſt inequality of the repreſentation of that ſtate, compared with that of other ſtates, particularly Virginia. He had no doubt, from the juſtice of the houſe, that if the amendment he propoſed was not directly contrary to the conſtitution, it would be agreed to. He then adverted to the conſtitution, and read the paſſage reſpecting repreſentation and taxation, which are to be apportioned according to numbers. He obſerved, that there were evidently wanting to complete the ſentence, theſe words, *as nearly as may be*. With this explanation added, he went on to ſhew, that the principle of equality would be more ſtrictly adhered to, by admitting his amendment, than by rejecting it: for if Delaware contains 58,000 inhabitants, 28,000 were certainly nearer to 33,000 than 33,000 were to 58,000. He recited other paſſages of the conſtitution, to ſhew that his idea was compatible with it.

Mr. *Benſon* again ſuggeſted his propoſition, of apportioning the repreſentation according to the whole population. He was in favour of a large repreſentation. The principle advanced by the gentleman from Pennſylvania (Mr. Findley) he ſaid, was undoubtedly juſt, that a large repreſentation was neceſſary in a free government, for information and ſecurity: this principle was not to be diſputed. And with reſpect to the danger from corruption, he ſaid, undoubtedly patronage and influence would creep in; but he conceived that danger of a more ſerious nature was to be apprehended from another quarter. Gentlemen had mentioned the funding ſyſtem. In queſtions of that kind, where one part of the union thought themſelves the only ſufferers, the liberties of this country would be but a ſecondary conſideration. For in a republican government the majority muſt rule, and the minority muſt ſubmit, except they are oppreſſed, and then they have an undoubted right to reſiſt.

Mr. *Giles* defended the bill. He obſerved that the apparent inequality in the repreſentation of the ſmaller ſtates, was rendered equal by their repreſentation in the ſenate. He enlarged on the idea of adhering to the amendment propoſed to the conſtitution. The inequality ſpoken of, he ſaid, was in fact in favour of ſmaller ſtates. He adverted to the reſtive ſpirit in ſome of the ſtates. Some of the meaſures of congreſs, he ſaid, were ſo diſliked, that the people in thoſe ſtates wiſhed themſelves ſeparated from the government. The people of the ſtate from which he came, were ſo impreſſed with the idea of the ratio being ſettled agreeably to the bill, that he really feared, the diſcontents of the people there would be increaſed to an alarming degree, ſhould the amendment of the ſenate be agreed to.

The motion for agreeing to the amendment was negatived—*yeas* 29 ; *nays* 31. The fenate refufed to recede from this amendment; and the houfe to concur therein : —fo the bill was loft.

On a motion made in the houfe of repreſentatives, that they ſhould recede from their diſagreement to the amendment propoſed by the ſenate, the debate was renewed, and the tendency of the amendment fully inveſtigated.

Mr. *Ames* ſaid, the amendment propoſed by the ſenate, though a ſingle propoſition, involved two queſtions, which it would be proper, on this occaſion, to diſcuſs diſtinctly.

Is the bill wrong, as the houſe paſſed it ? and is the propoſed amendment of the ſenate fit and proper ?

The original bill gives the ratio of one member to 30,000 perſons, and proceeds to ſtate the number of repreſentatives which the reſpective ſtates ſhall have in the next congreſs. If in this diſtribution of members, it ſhall appear that we have not purſued the conſtitution, the bill is a bad one, and it is our duty to concur with the ſenate, at leaſt in ſtriking out the exceptionable part.

The conſtitution directs that repreſentatives ſhall be apportioned among the ſeveral ſtates according to their reſpective numbers. The whole number of repreſentatives being firſt fixed, they ſhall be apportioned to any ſtate according to its cenſus. The rule of three will ſhew what part of the repreſentation any ſtate ſhall have. The wiſdom and caution of the conſtitution have left very little to congreſs in this affair. Though congreſs is to apportion the members, the rule of apportionment is fixed; the number of repreſentatives will be 112. Theſe are to be apportioned to each ſtate according to its numbers. What part of the 112 members will Virginia have according to its people ? The anſwer is eaſily found. Virginia, having 630,000 perſons (which is her federal number, after deducting two fifths for the ſlaves according to the conſtitution) is entitled to 29 members? The bill gives her 21. Is that right ? Who will ſay that the words or meaning of the conſtitution are purſued ? Are the repreſentatives, then, apportioned or diſproportioned ?

We may believe the reſult of figures. The ſum is ſhort and eaſy to reckon. Let us not then perſiſt in a meaſure which palpably violates the conſtitution. The argument might ſtop here ; but, to ſhew how other ſtates will be wronged by the bill, it may be well to proceed. If the conſtitution had been ſilent, as we are men, common ſenſe would have told us, and as we are freemen, we ſhould have learned from our habits of acting, that an unequal repreſentation is wrong. But the conſtitution is not ſilent, and yet the bill gives Virginia 21 members.

The ſtates of Vermont, New-Hampſhire, Rhode-Iſland, Connecticut, New-Jerſey, and Delaware, have 766,428 perſons, and they will have by the bill, only 21 members. With upwards of one hundred and thirty thouſand perſons more than Virginia, they will have no more members than that ſingle ſtate.

Thus Virginia has by the bill two members more than her due number compared with the whole union, and not leſs than four as it reſpects the ſix ſtates before mentioned.

From this view of the operation of the bill, I draw this concluſion, which I preſume is anticipated, that the propoſed diſtribution of repreſentatives is neither juſt and equal in itſelf, nor warranted by the conſtitution.

If further evidence of this injuſtice ſhould be demanded, it can be furniſhed. Repreſentatives and direct taxes are to be apportioned by the ſame rule ; and there is a manifeſt propriety in the rule. In the diſtribution of benefits and burdens, the conſtitution has wiſely excluded this means and temptation to partiality.

It is an additional ſecurity to our property that thoſe who hold the power are made to feel it when they exerciſe it ; and that exactly in the degree that they hold it ; taxes are to be apportioned according to the numbers in the reſpective ſtates. It would not be allowed by the conſtitution to uſe one rule for apportioning taxes and another for the members. If two things are to be compared with a third and made equal to it, it follows that they muſt be equal to each other. Let us ſuppoſe this bill to have become a law ; and for the more plainly ſhewing its tendency, let us ſuppoſe Virginia to have 630,000 perſons, her true number, and 21 members, and the 13 ſtates to have, as Delaware actually has, 59,000 perſons each, and one member to each ſtate ; in the whole, 1,397,000 perſons. Let us ſuppoſe a tax to be laid equal

to a dollar for each perfon in the 14 ftates, that is, a tax of 1,397,000 dollars. Virginia, in point of juftice, and by the conftitution, fhould pay only according to her numbers, or 630.000 dollars; yet fhe would pay 21 parts in 34, or 1,007,000 dollars, being 377,000 more than her proportion. Whether with 21 members in 34, this wrong would be impofed or fubmitted to, is not my queftion. This may be called an extreme cafe; yet, in fact, Delaware, New-Jerfey, Connecticut, New-Hampfhire, and Vermont, on a tax equal to a dollar a head, would avoid more than 150,000 dollars of their juft proportion; the juftice and the conftitutionality of fuch an apportionment of taxes are upon an equal footing.

Extraordinary as this ftatement may feem, it is not eafy to fhew an authority in congrefs to apportion a tax on any other principle. It would not do to deprive a ftate of its proportion of members, and yet to faddle it with taxes, according to numbers: The departure from the rule of the conftitution in the cafe of reprefentatives, would be rendered both more flagrant and more galling, by an adherence to it in the impofition of taxes. Such a comment upon this law would filence its advocates; fuch an execution of it would disfranchife the fufferers.

But this is not the country, and I truft this is not the government to do a violence of this fort; therefore, no tax would be laid. And yet, unlefs a new cenfus fhould be taken, or a new law, at leaft, for apportioning reprefentatives, fhould be paffed, congrefs might be found deftitute of one of its conftitutional faculties.

The gentlemen who vote for this law have been importuned to defend it; anxious as we are under the fear of feeing the conftitution and our primary civil rights violated, we have liftened to hear reafons which would fhew fome refpect for the one and the other. It is needlefs to decide whether men's paffions will be foothed or their underftandings convinced by an argument of this kind, that, as the fmall ftates are equally with the large ones reprefented in the fenate, the advantage which the bill will fecure to Virginia in the reprefentative branch is fit and proper, and that it was fo intended by the conftitution. Is one in equality, if it really exifted, to be balanced by another? Becaufe the conftitution has fecured to each ftate an equal vote in the fenate, are we at liberty to make a new conftitution as often as we make a reprefentation law, to counterpoife it; and under a form of government contrived to fecure equal liberty, and to fix right above opinion, are the meafure and the nature of this retribution to the great ftates to depend on our arbitrary difcretion? This anfwer is perhaps more ferious than the argument. Let it be refuted by itfelf.

Becaufe the great ftates fuffer wrong in the conftitutional compact, will this bill do them right? Is Maffachufetts or North-Carolina benefited by giving Virginia two extra members? By this bill the great ftates are injured as well as the fmall ones. The fmall ones are injured as it refpects each other. Delaware will have one member, Rhode-Iland two; yet the latter has only nine thoufand more people than the former. But the doctrine tears up the foundation of compact on which we ftand, and under the appearance of vindicating the bill from a charge of violating the conftitution, eftablifhes a claim to violate it at pleafure.

It has been faid that the reprefentatives are to be apportioned among the feveral ftates; that congrefs is not to regard the number of the whole nation: it is not eafy to fee how the bill can be defended on any principle of diftribution among the ftates. The reprefentatives are to be apportioned according to numbers. The number of members alloted to a ftate muft correfpond either with the number of perfons in any other ftate, or the number in all the ftates; compare Virginia with either of the fix ftates beforementioned, or with the whole fix; it appears that 130,000 perfons in the latter will go unreprefented; compare Virginia with the nation, fhe has two members more than her proportion. Why then is it fo zealoufly contended that the apportionment is not to be made upon the entire number of the union, but upon the cenfus of each ftate? The bill is as naked of defence on the one comparifon as the other. It departs as widely from the principles of its advocates as from thofe of its adverfaries.

It is indeed intimated, that you are to take the ratio of 30,000, and to apply it to each ftate, without regarding its operation. To juftify this interpretation, the text of the conftitution ought to read, *each ftate fhall have as many members as the ratio of* 30,000 *applied to the number of perfons will give it:* But that inftrument is very differently expreffed, and much better; *reprefentatives and direct taxes are to be apportioned among the feveral ftates according to their refpective numbers.* Will any gentleman who

votes for the bill say that it is such an apportionment? Will it accord with the constitution to take, instead of such an apportionment, an arbitrary ratio, which, instead of apportioning, disproportions representatives to numbers? The ratio mentioned in the constitution, and in the proposed amendment to it, evidently relates to the whole number of representatives, which according to it may be had from the whole nation, and not from the number of people in a state; any other sense, besides being unnatural, would disagree with the clause which directs how representatives shall be apportioned.

By the ratio of one to 30,000 may be known the greatest number of representatives which shall form this branch of the government. Having determined the number, it remains to apportion the members according to the census in the respective states. Nothing is more natural, or corresponds more perfectly with the constitution, than to find first the whole number of representatives, and then to apportion them as the constitution directs. But this method would not suit the present emergency; for that would give Virginia 19 members, and no more. Instead of beginning with the whole number, the bill says, let us begin at the other end; give Virginia her 21 first, and, if the number should hold out, give to all the states at that rate. It seems on trial the number will not hold out to apportion in that manner, still, however, says the bill, give Virginia her 21.

Let the constitution become what the bill makes it, a dead letter. Still, however, men, and freemen, will remain, who will preserve the departed spirit; for, before the constitution was formed our rights were equal; and can it be believed that compact has made them less? Men, equal in rights, assented to a government which preserves them equal in power: 30,000 citizens residing where they may, must possess civil rights and powers equal to 30,000 in any other part of the union; yet, though a compact, which ought to be inviolable, has ordained that representation, that is to say, power, shall be apportioned according to numbers, this bill, contradicting the language of nature and compact, directs, that 30,000 in Virginia shall have as much power as near 60,000 in Delaware and several other states.

It would ill suit the seriousness of my present emotions, to say how little the supposed expediency of a numerous assembly, and many other favourite topics, have to do with the debate; constitutional questions are so frequent they have almost lost their power to impress us. But this touches the first organization of the body politick; it goes to stifle liberty in her cradle; it establishes the power of a part over the whole; it is a disfranchisement of some of the states. If the rights of Virginia were invaded, I trust I should be equally zealous to maintain them. For the common right is the common security; but this bill tears the title deed in pieces.

Having compared the bill with the constitution, and seen the result of the comparison, it remains to enquire what amendment will be proper and constitutional. In this part of the enquiry, I will not pretend to say that I have arrived at equal certainty. I have no doubt that the bill is bad, but I am not equally satisfied of the best mode of amending it.

To determine what is right, some principle must be ascertained. That first principle is equality; it is another name for justice: That which is the right of the people, therefore, is the duty of the government. But as it is not practicable to apportion representatives exactly among the several states according to their numbers, it is our duty to approach as nearly to that equality as may be. If an apportionment is proposed, and it can be shewn that a more equal one can be made, it becomes our duty so to make it. For if we have an arbitrary discretion to reject the most equal apportionment, and to adopt a less equal, what is to restrain us from chusing the least equal of all, that is to say, having no apportionment at all. If this principle is not to govern us, then we are to act without any rule at all, and the constitution was made in vain. We cannot have more representatives than one to 30,000; but in apportioning them, let us follow the constitution, and do it according to numbers; and when we stop, as we must, short of a perfect equality, it will be the constitution that restrains us. In doing this, we shall assume no arbitrary control over the equal and sacred rights of the people. We shall have done all that we can to give them energy. It has appeared on discussion, that the rule of 30,000, proposed by the bill, is so far from being the most equal, that no more capricious and unjust disproportionment of representatives has yet been suggested. The ratio of 33,000, though not free from exception, is less unequal, and leaves less unrepresented fractions.

Having made ſome further obſervations, he concluded by exhibiting a table, the object of which was, to prove that the amendment would ſecure a greater equality of repreſentation, than the bill, in its original ſtate.

Mr. *Dayton* ſaid, that if the vote which was about to be taken, were merely to determine what ſhould be the ratio of repreſentation, he ſhould have been contented to remain in his ſeat, and give a ſilent vote upon the occaſion; but to him it appeared to involve in it a queſtion and a principle of infinitely higher moment.

Two of the members from Virginia, Mr. Dayton obſerved, had candidly admitted the inequalities complained of in the apportionment preſcribed by the bill ſent up to the ſenate, and had acknowledged the advantages to be given to their ſtate over every other: they did not, he ſaid, contradict the calculations, nor combat the arguments which had been offered againſt it, but they boldly claimed and exacted thoſe advantages as a right. This being the caſe, the queſtion was in reality no longer, whether 30 or 33,000 ſhould be the rule of apportionment, but whether the legiſlature of the union were in future to frame their acts with a view to the particular and almoſt excluſive advantage of Virginia, and to bend and accommodate their laws to the intereſts and will of the people or repreſentatives of that ſtate.

It was now alſo to be determined, Mr. Dayton further obſerved, whether Pennſylvania was hereafter deſtined to hold in her hands, as ſhe had been in ſome meaſure uſed to do, the political balance of the ſtates, to be the umpire in our diſputes, and the centre of our union. Judging, he ſaid, from the votes upon record, relating to this buſineſs, and from ſome other circumſtances, ſhe was no longer intended or qualified to hold that important ſtation. The ancient prophecy, he ſaid, ſeemed to be verifying among a people for whom he had never conſidered it as intended. The ſaviour of this country, the political Shiloh, was now among us, and univerſally known and acknowledged, and the ſceptre was about to depart from Judah. Theſe, he added, were the well known preparatives to the ſummons which was ſoon to follow, for their aſſembling at the New-Jeruſalem. He concluded, with ſaying, that not Pennſylvania alone, but far the greateſt part of the union would have reaſon to repent the determination againſt the amendment of the ſenate, and the adherence to the original bill. He, for his own part, believed that ſuch a determination not only ſtruck at the exiſtence of the ſtate ſovereignties, but reached to the very vitals of the general government, and that it muſt eventually produce either a general conſolidation of the union into one national maſs, or an abſolute ſeparation of its members.

Mr. *Venable* ſuppoſed that a Virginian was poſſeſſed of equal rights with other men; if this be a government of compact, he has equal rights with other men; but is it a reaſon, that becauſe Virginia has relinquiſhed a part of her rights when this compact was forming, that ſhe ſhould not now hold what ſhe has not reſigned? The diſpute on the ratio of repreſentation does not affect Virginia; for whatever ratio may be adopted, her repreſentation muſt always be complete: whether this be a conſolidated or federal government, Virginia will have her full proportion in every caſe except one, that is, in caſe ſhe ſhould be reduced to a leſs number than one member; ſo that, upon whatever grounds we take it, whether fractional or conſtitutional, the reſult will be nearly the ſame. Calculations therefore, are out of the queſtion, and after all the arguments of northern and ſouthern intereſts, of the differences between ſmall ſtates and large ſtates, the compariſon is brought to Virginia and Delaware, and the queſtion is to ſtrike off ſeven members from the five large ſtates, and add to the ſeven ſmaller ones. Thus is one ſixteenth of the whole repreſentation of the union to be deducted unconſtitutionally from one part and given away to another, which has already more than a juſt proportion in the government: for although it is contended, that we ſhould not argue from the proportion the ſmall ſtates bear in the ſenate, yet, I hold it fair, in ſpeaking of a government of repreſentation, to take the whole into view, and not be governed by ſuch partial compariſons. Under this conſideration, I ſay, that every man in Virginia, as repreſented in the two branches of the legiſlature, is to a man in Delaware only as *one* to *eleven and one half*, and in the election of a preſident only as *one* to *one and an half*. This is an advantage enjoyed by individuals in the ſmaller ſtates more than by thoſe in the larger, and this advantage would be ſtill increaſed by an adoption of the amendment of the ſenate: is it, therefore, juſt to increaſe this inequality? Is it fair that a man living in the neighbourhood of another, with only the boundary line of a ſtate between them, ſhould be repreſented only in the proportion of *one* to *eleven and an half*?

I contend that the principle which comes the neareſt to hold out equal rights to every man, is the moſt proper one, and one that I will always contend for, as a citizen of the united ſtates, and as a citizen of Virginia. I ſhall never wiſh to encroach upon the conſtitution, but I will be equally againſt deſtroying the balance between the rights which the people have delegated, and thoſe they have retained.

Take the ſubject in any point of view, the five large ſtates will ſend, ſuppoſe 81 members, to the houſe of repreſentatives, and 10 to the ſenate, whilſt the nine ſmaller ſtates will have 31 members in this houſe, and 18 in the ſenate; ſo that the majority of the repreſentation in the one is overpowered in the other, and taking the whole aggregate of the inhabitants of the united ſtates, if divided into the majority contained in thoſe five large ſtates, and the minority in the nine ſmaller ones, it appears that the minority of the people can dictate to the majority in elections, &c.

Government is formed by an aſſociation of the people upon principles of equality, and whilſt we admit the argument of ſovereignty retained to the ſtates in the ſenate, let us not loſe ſight of juſtice, right, and equity. He concluded, by declaring himſelf of the ſame opinion as formerly, in favour of the bill; and as there were no reaſons offered by the ſenate, or for them, that could induce him to change, conſequently he could not recede from his opinion.

Mr. *Madiſon*, after making a few prefatory obſervations, ſaid he felt himſelf impelled to take ſome notice of the arguments that had been uſed this day, on the ſubject before the houſe: he would not, however, attempt any reply to the gentleman from New-Jerſey, nor pretend to follow him in his flights of imagination reſpecting the New-Jeruſalem or the umpirage of Pennſylvania, but leave it to thoſe to whom ſuch obſervations might have been addreſſed to draw their own concluſions. He was ſorry that it almoſt always happened, whenever any queſtion of general policy and advantage to the union was before the houſe, and gentlemen found themſelves at a loſs for general arguments, they commonly reſorted to local views; and at all times, as well as the preſent, when there was moſt occaſion for members to act with the utmoſt coolneſs, when their judgments ought to be the leaſt biaſſed, it was to be regretted, that at thoſe times they ſuffered their feelings, paſſions, and prejudices to govern their reaſon. Thus it is, that the moſt important points are embarraſſed, the northern and ſouthern intereſts are held up, every local circumſtance comes into view, and every idea of liberality and candour is baniſhed.

The gentleman from New-York, (Mr. Lawrance,) when he introduced this ſubject at the commencement of the preſent ſeſſion, did it on the moſt generous plan, and diſavowed every principle of calculation ſo much, that he then declared he had not ſo much as made a ſingle calculation of the different fractions which have ſince been introduced into the debate. His only object was to fix a rule on general principles, agreeably to the conſtitution and to the preſervation of the rights of the people; and this idea was approved by two of the gentlemen from New-Jerſey, who have ſince altered their opinions, although they then had no objections, but as to the expenſe: the idea of fractions was not then contended for, but has ſince become the very eſſence of the oppoſition: and we are called on to violate the conſtitution, by adopting a meaſure that will give repreſentatives for thoſe ſeparate and diſtinct fractions in the reſpective ſtates; and afterwards are told it is not to the fractional numbers in the ſtates that they refer, but to the aggregate of the fractions in the united ſtates. If this reaſoning is good, why do the gentlemen ſtop at this boundary of a repreſentation by ſtates? why not proceed to erect the whole of the united ſtates into one diſtrict, without any diviſion, in order to prevent the inequality they conceive to exiſt in reſpect to individual ſtates?

He would not encroach upon the time of the houſe by protracting the debate, which had already ſwelled to an immoderate extent. Upon the whole, he ſaid, this was a great queſtion, wherein attention ſhould be paid to the people, and a ſtrict eye kept towards the public good, diveſted of prejudice; but he had heard, with pain, how much had been ſaid to divert the houſe, by an attention to fractions, from the true object of general welfare. Yet, he hoped, that the government would be equally adminiſtered; that none of thoſe predictions or threats, thrown out in the courſe of the debate, that no mutilation of the union, would take place; but, on the contrary, that harmony would guide the deciſion of this queſtion, free from every local conſideration.

Mr. *Hillhouſe.* It has often been ſaid this government is a government of confidence, and taking this for granted, can it ever be ſuppoſed that a plan of repreſentation, which is unequal and unjuſt, can excite this confidence. This ratio of 30,000, throws an additional weight of ſeven repreſentatives into the ſcale of the large ſtates. If this principle can be eſtabliſhed on this occaſion, it may be alſo extended to taxation. Northern and ſouthern intereſts had been mentioned: he was ſorry the idea had ever been ſuggeſted; but as it had, there was no impropriety in adverting to it. Let a line then be drawn at any given place, and a ratio eſtabliſhed which will do equal juſtice to the members on both ſides of that line; a repreſentation that will deviate from ſuch a principle, it cannot be expected, will give ſatisfaction, or be cheerfully ſubmitted to by the people. The ratio of 33,000, figures will ſhew it, will give a more equal repreſentation than that of 30,000. There had not, and, in his opinion, could not, be any good reaſon aſſigned why it ſhould not be adopted.

Mr. *Boudinot* ſaid he was pleaſed when gentlemen were deſirous of appealing to candid and fair argument, in determining important queſtions. In the preſent caſe, he thought there was a propriety in examining the principles of the bill and amendment, by the terms of the conſtitution. It had been ſaid by gentlemen, that the ratio, when adopted, muſt be applied to the number of citizens in the individual ſtates, and that no regard was to be paid to the fractions occaſioned thereby, becauſe not regarded by the conſtitution. This, he thought, was by no means concluſive. The houſe of repreſentatives was to conſiſt of members choſen every ſecond year, by the people of the ſeveral ſtates; theſe members not to exceed the proportion of one to 30,000. It appeared to him that the whole number of repreſentatives, to be choſen by the people of the union, was the ſubject contemplated by the conſtitution, as conſtituting this branch of the legiſlature; while by another part of the conſtitution, it becomes the duty of congreſs, *to apportion* them when ſo aſcertained, among the ſeveral ſtates, in proportion to their reſpective numbers. As an inſtance, ſuppoſe for argument's ſake, the aggregate number of the citizens of the united ſtates to be exactly three millions, by applying the ratio of 30,000, the conſtitutional number of this houſe would be found 100; congreſs ſhould then proceed to *apportion* (for he could apply no other meaning to the word) the 100 members among the ſtates, as their reſpective numbers bore a proportion to the whole number of three millions. Thus the repreſentatives from every ſtate would bear an exact proportion to each other, according to the number of inhabitants in the ſtate; and the whole repreſentation would ſtand on principles of perfect equality. An equal repreſentation appears to have been the deſirable object of the framers of the conſtitution. It is the very ſpirit of our government. He inſiſted that this was the only mode of applying the ratio, and making the apportionment that would hold good at all times, and under all circumſtances. It cannot be ſaid with propriety, that the conſtitution does not proceed on principles of perfect equality in this houſe, yet if the ratio will be applied to the numbers in the individual ſtates, it will always produce (as has been fully ſhewn by ſeveral gentlemen) very great inequality, by large fractions being unavoidable. In one ſtate we now find one upwards of 29,000. He acknowledged the amendment did not proceed on this principle any more than the bill, for which reaſon he fully approved of neither, but as the ratio of 33,000 in the amendment produced a much greater equality, and came in effect nearer to his principle, (by reducing the fractions made by the bill nearly two thirds) he ſhould prefer it, as he muſt vote for the one or the other.

It had been ſaid that they were making diſtinctions between the north and the ſouth—between the large and ſmall ſtates. He obſerved, in anſwer, that if gentlemen would introduce principles of inequality, that bore unconſtitutionally hard on individual ſtates, they ought not to take it amiſs, that the ſuffering ſtates would complain of the injuſtice. The injured muſt complain, and the fault, if any, lies with the firſt framers of the principle.

If gentlemen wiſhed for equality, let them adhere to the principles of the conſtitution. Apply the ratio to the whole number of citizens, by which you find the number of repreſentatives to conſtitute this houſe, and then apportion thoſe repreſentatives among the individual ſtates, according to their reſpective numbers.

When gentlemen advert to the ſenate, and ſay that the equal repreſentation of the ſmall ſtates there ſhould be taken into the account, they do not conſider the relative ſituation of the ſtates as repreſented in that houſe. There the ſovereignty of each

state is represented, and not the individual citizen. Sovereignty is perfectly equal in every state. As sovereigns there are none great or small, and if his information had been right, it was on that principle that the senate was originally constituted, but that house was a representative of every individual citizen. On the whole, he was of opinion, that by agreeing to the amendment of the senate, they would secure the great principles of equality better than by the bill.

Mr. Boudinot thought the construction he had given the constitution was a true one. It supported the spirit of the confederation between the states, which was on the footing of perfect equality in proportion to numbers. It coincided with the spirit of our government, which was equality; and, although by it, the number of members constituting the house was first ascertained from the whole people aggregately considered, without respect to the division of states, in their political capacity, yet by the after *apportionment* among the respective states in that capacity, the wisdom of the constitution appeared, in thus providing a general government for general purposes, and at the same time making each individual state, as a state, essential to the existence of that government, thereby preventing, in the most effectual manner, an unnecessary entire consolidation of the union. Mr. B. said he had originally objected to the bill, on account of a too numerous and expensive representation, as well as of an unequal one, but chiefly relied on the last, as being unconstitutional, and therefore should still prefer a concurrence with the senate.

Mr. *Gerry* observed, that it had been fashionable to speak of the ratio of 30,000 as a federal number; he did not know what name to give to the amendment of the senate, unless it were called the fractional number. He then took notice of an argument which had been used to create suspicion, that there was danger to be apprehended from a combination of the larger states; but this would appear a weak argument, when it was considered that the power and influence of the smaller states are equal, in the senate, to those of the greater states. The thing is impossible, and if attempted, could not succeed.

He wished to know whether it was the opinion of gentlemen, that there was less judgment and less firmness in the house of representatives than in the senate? He hoped an equipoise would be preserved in the two branches, and that the balance would not be destroyed by constantly giving up the judgment of the house to every whim of the senate. If a latitude be now admitted, that we may increase the ratio before the expiration of the first ten years, the gentlemen in favour of the senate's amendment may insist on a ratio of 50 or 60,000; but this is ground they know they cannot yet touch upon; and the same reason that should prevent us from adopting this extreme, operates against the amendment. The whole expense of congress, from adopting the ratio in the bill, will not amount to two cents upon each citizen of the united states annually, and as population increases it will be lessened. Surely, the gentlemen in favour of the amendment cannot object to this trifling expense. They speak of a liberal policy; I wish they would shew us an example, by agreeing to the bill with a better grace than they seem to have exhibited hitherto.

Mr. *Murray*. The subject has gone through a very ample discussion. When the question of representation first came on, the theory of the government was ably resorted to by those who urged a large representation. Sir, I most heartily agreed in the principle, on which a large majority of this house made 30,000 the ratio. As I still am of that opinion, I shall be indulged by this house, while I give my reasons for adhering, with a firmness which may be deemed by some tenaciousness, to a rejection of the amendment of the senate.

I voted for 30,000, because I saw in that ratio the constitutional wishes and expectations of the people. I deemed the largest possible ratio allowed by the constitution to be the source of national government, and its best security. Nothing, sir, which I have yet heard, has convinced me to the contrary. It is unnecessary to recapitulate whatever has been said on this point. I must remark, however, that during the discussion, the members of this house, who suggested that principle, appeared to me to be convinced. They seemed to be masters of their own opinions, and to agree in this idea, without adverting to the doctrine of fractions, that the sole question was a point of theory rather than a measure of expedience; and they decided, by a large majority, that in this house, immediately warm from the very bosom of the people, the ratio of 30,000 was theoretically correct and practically useful. The bill was sent up to the senate, who returned it with an amendment of 33,000 as the ratio. I

voted againſt that amendment, becauſe it was an attack upon the principle of an enlarged repreſentation; and becauſe the idea of fractional repreſentation aimed at by the amendment, was but a commutation of the evil of fractions from one ſtate to another, from the eaſtern to the ſouthern; and contained a ſurrender of the principle, without an attainment of convenience.

Sir, it has been in the courſe of debate foretold, that that honourable body would be averſe to an enlarged repreſentation here. Whatever has been argued, has been verified by experience; nor can any man be at a loſs to ſee that the temper againſt large repreſentation, though not openly avowed, for that would have been impolitic, has been covertly and ſucceſsfully exerted, under the ſemblance of *equality* of repreſentation, by this doctrine of fractions. It was ſent down into this houſe in the form of jealouſy and ſuſpicion, and it has produced its effects. It has rouſed the latent local intereſts from their plans, and we have had debates entirely conſtructed on the tenets of northern and ſouthern intereſts and influence.

A propoſition was made by a member from New-York, Mr. Benſon, and reiterated by the gentleman from Delaware. The object of this propoſition was to ſum up the fractions, and from the aggregate take ſeven members. Sir, if I was ſurpriſed, I confeſs I was delighted to ſee men who had a few days before oppoſed in theory the idea of a large repreſentation, come down with moderation, and ſuggeſt this great principle, even in a bad form. I imagined they were converted. I voted againſt this propoſition, becauſe I thought it, firſt, unconſtitutional, inaſmuch as it could have been contemplated but in the conſolidation of ſtates; and becauſe I thought it contained a ſo'eciſm in politics. I deemed it unconſtitutional, as the conſtitution calls for a repreſentation of the people of the *reſpective* STATES in a ratio of 30,000; and if this had been obtained, it was to be done by collecting the fragments of conſtituents from ſtates widely ſeparate, and giving a repreſentation of their fractions thus divided to that ſtate which had the largeſt fraction. Thus, ſir, the two from Delaware would be choſen by leſs than the conſtitution contemplates, as there are not 60,000; and it is in vain to ſay, that the member choſen by 25,000 is elected by the addition of 5,000 in any other ſtate, in order to complete his proper number of conſtituents, for they do not *elect* him: and if it be ſaid that he nevertheleſs does repreſent them as his conſtituents, it can only be by the idea of a conſolidation having pre-exiſted, which no man has yet openly averred to be the doctrine on this ſubject. The very firſt and moſt intelligible principle of repreſentation in government is, that the repreſentative is reſponſible to his conſtituents; but, ſir, this, though an abſtract truth, muſt be ſhewn to the people not in a fiction, but in a ſolid and practical mode, congenial with their habits, and palpable to their underſtandings.

In the adoption of this extraordinary propoſition, the idea of *virtual* repreſentation is the only one which at all protects it. No man, however, who knows the country, will tamper and trifle with ſo ſolid a part of government, as that of actual repreſentation and actual reſponſibility. I never, ſir, could conſent to commute a known and practical meaſure of good, for a flimſy ſpeculation, which could only have been invented to ſerve particular views, and was never thought of till it was diſcovered in what manner the fractions would affect particular ſtates.

For theſe reaſons, ſir, I voted againſt that propoſition. I ſhall now vote againſt the amendment of the ſenate, becauſe I find no cure, but a partial one, for the inconvenience of fractions; and even this is to be obtained at the expenſe of principle. Though this amendment may gratify ſome ſtates, as New-Jerſey, that may have large fractions, it throws off the evil from them on other ſtates. The fraction of Maſſachuſetts may be ſmaller, but the ſtate of Maryland loſes a member, and will have a large fraction. Sir, I can find nothing in this amendment, but the deſign to accompliſh what I humbly conceive an unwholeſome end by improper means, and ſhall therefore vote againſt the propoſed amendment.

Mr. *Findley*, From the various obſervations which had been made on the ſubject, ſaid it had become neceſſary that a vote ſhould be given with due deliberation—ſuch a vote as conſtitutional juſtice ſhould require: for as to general juſtice, it was entirely out of the queſtion; and indeed, he ſaid, that general juſtice could not be done, on the principles of any government under heaven. He adverted to the particular ſituation of the reſpective ſtates, and ſaid, that this general juſtice was not attainable in any one of them. We are not to be moved by any threats; we act on principle, and we will entrench ourſelves in principle; and this principle of conſtitutional

equality is all that we can pretend to. But it is objected that the ratio will produce fractions—and to get rid of this difficulty of fractions, we are to reduce the representation of the people from the constitutional number of one to every 30,000; that is, we are to strike off one sixteenth part of the whole representation of the union. He urged, that the representation on the ratio of 30,000 would not be too great. He instanced the representation of Geneva, and other foreign states. If there should arise any inconvenience from the present ratio of 30,000, government were not obliged to wait for the expiration of ten years to remedy the defect; it was always in the power of congress to order another census to be taken at any time. For his own part, he had not considered fractions as an obstacle to the bill; on the contrary, he was rejoiced that the population of the country increased so rapidly, as to make those fractions always quickly increase to an whole number. To conclude, he was for going on general principles, which would certainly reflect the most honour on the proceedings of the legislature.

Mr. *W. Smith* said he had hitherto voted uniformly in favour of a smaller representation than that which was contemplated in the bill, and in doing so he had acted from principle, without any reference to the doctrine of fractions. As the enumeration of his state was not yet known, it must be evident to every gentleman in the house that this was the case: but he now saw the necessity of changing his vote, since the bill had been returned from the senate, where it seemed there was a disposition to modify every bill, and every proceeding of this house, just as they pleased. He thought it would have a very awkward appearance to the world, if the house should give way in all cases whatever, and more especially in the present instance, where the senate had been equally divided, and the question was decided by the vote of a single member of that body, the vice-president. For these reasons, and the locality and fractions that had been introduced into the debate, he would vote for an adherence to the former decision of the house, in order to support that balance which should be preserved between the two branches of the legislature.

Mr. *Sedgwick* said, that it was impossible for him to understand on what principle the gentleman from South-Carolina, and his colleague, were to give their votes, contrary to their former expressed opinion, excepting that they had discovered that the senate concurred with them, which would not, he hoped, be generally considered as a good ground for changing; as it seemed to be embracing contradiction for the purpose of contradiction; or unless, as the gentleman had declared, that, at the time he formed his opinion, he did it on principle, by the abandonment of which, he could acquire an undue weight to the district of country from which he came, by departing from a just equality in representation.

Gentlemen had seemed to wish to obscure the merits of the present controversy, by considering it as a contest between the larger and smaller states, and by supposing that the latter would be compensated for their loss of weight and influence in this house, which would result from an unequal apportionment of the representation, by the undue influence which they possessed in the senate. He himself came from a very large and important state. Justice, however, obliged him to declare that this mode of conducting the argument, only tended to divert the judgment from the true merits of the question. What had the distribution of the powers of the government, which, by the constitution, was adjusted to the interests and sovereignty of the states, to do with the apportionment of representation, as it respected either its numbers or the various interests which were to be secured by equality of influence? Was it possible that any mind should be so weak as not to discover that the constitutional organization of the senate was wholly irrelative to those considerations, which should influence in the decision of the present question?

In contemplating the subject before the house, he observed, that a vast variety of circumstances were entitled to deliberate consideration. Among others, the number of representatives compared with the number of inhabitants of the united states. In determining which, the nature and objects of the government we were administering, its machinery, the distribution of its parts, the construction of the other branch of the legislature, and many other objects, were to be considered. That we had not on any of these subjects the aid of experience, and that the government itself was a novel experiment. He need not therefore add, that there were no data from which any certain conclusion could be drawn. All was uncertainty and conjecture. Was an apportionment of a ratio of 30,000 eligible? As an abstract proposition, he was disposed to

give it a preference to any other. But if he was asked wherefore, he could only answer, that it was rather an inclination of sentiment, than the result of rational reflection. He would not therefore, because justice would not permit it, sacrifice to the effect of conjecture, which might be only the result of whim, the important and indispensable duty he owed to respect the claims of states to equality.

If an apportionment was made by a ratio of 30,000, the members would be seven more than if the amendment of the senate were adopted. Whichever proposition was agreed to, would any one venture to affirm that the liberties of the people would be more or less secure, the house aggregately more or less wise, or the due balance between the two houses better or worse adjusted? Considering thus the subject, does not the earnestness with which gentlemen contend for the proposition of the house, appear perfectly unaccountable? But in the progress of this business, it is discovered that an application of the principle of the house, gives a balance of weight and influence to one part of the united states, to which it is not entitled by the equal apportionment contemplated by the constitution. This is agreed by all, it is demonstrated by figures. Nor can it be denied that equality is among the most essential principles of representation, and expressly provided for by the constitution, as far as would consist with the state of our society, having a due regard to our particular circumstances. Yet all-important as this consideration is, it is to be sacrificed, with all the interests involved in it, to a fanciful idea of theory; of theory unsanctioned by experience.

For his own part, he believed that wise policy would be found perfectly to coincide with, and reconcile the various interests of this extensive country. It could not, however, have escaped the observation of every gentleman, that there existed an opinion of opposition of interests between the northern and southern states. The influence of this opinion had been felt in the discussion of every important question which had come under the consideration of the legislature. The extreme anxiety of gentlemen on the present occasion, would render all other evidence superfluous on this subject. Such a belief, he said, however ill-founded, would, as long as it continued, have the same effect as if it existed in fact. Feeling the weight of this observation, and the influence it ought to have to give to every part of the united states as nearly as might be, a due proportion of constitutional weight in the public councils, he was incapable of reconciling the conduct of members who were disposed to sacrifice the most important interests of their immediate constituents, to their strange ideas of conjectural perfection. It seemed to him that the gentlemen who came from the north, and on this occasion dissented from their neighbours, were disposed blindly to surrender all the important interests of their immediate constituents, to the arbitration of those, the whole course of whose conduct had demonstrated that they thought those interests adverse to their own.

He concluded, by warning those who had hitherto composed a majority on this subject, to reflect on the danger that would result from a pertinacious adherence to a measure so productive of the sources of jealousy. And he called on their generosity, magnanimity and justice, to respect the claims of the minority to an equal weight in the government, on the principles of the constitution.

Mr. *Gerry* made some reply to Mr. Sedgwick, respecting locality of interests, and declared that he would never agree to a reduction of the people's representation.

Mr. *Lawrance* said he had always advocated a large representation, without any reference to the part of the union from which the members were to come. 30,000 would give the largest number we could get. He could have wished it had been larger; but as it could not, he should vote against 33,000, which would diminish the number. And this was the principle he acted upon. If an equality is the object, is there not a number which will produce a still greater equality than that proposed by the senate? If there is, there is no principle in the ratio of 33,000; for it ought to be carried to the full extent, to make it perfectly equal. He was sorry that the discussion of the question had excited those disagreeable reflections which had been made, and that the discussion of general principles was dwindled into a debate on fractions, and on the interests of northern and southern parts of the union. He was persuaded this would not be the proper mode of obtaining the end, which ought to be in view, but would only tend to disturb the tranquility and harmony that ought to exist in investigating and determining this subject.

Mr. *Kittera* having first voted for 30,000, he thought it proper to offer a few reasons for altering his opinion. He had voted for 30,000, because it would give the largest representation; but finding its unjust and unequal operation, in respect to a majority of the states, he had determined to vote for the ratio of 33,000. He then noticed the remark of Mr. Findley, that the injustice might be corrected, by an enumeration at an earlier period than that proposed in the constitution. He observed, that this was in effect saying, let us do injustice, and wait a number of years, and then justice shall be done. Why not do justice now, as far as in our power? Mr. Lawrance had said, why not adopt a ratio that would leave less fractions than 33,000? He said this was in effect saying, that because we could not do complete justice, we should not do it to any degree whatever. The superior degree of equality which would result from the amendment of the senate, had been so fully demonstrated, that he should now vote to recede from the disagreement of the house to it.

The motion to recede was negatived, as has already been mentioned.

The bill being thus lost, it became necessary to take up the business *de novo*. A new bill was accordingly reported to the house of representatives, on the 7th of February, by a committee which had been appointed for that purpose. This bill, in addition to the apportionment of representatives among the several states, according to the first enumeration, made provision for another enumeration, and an apportionment of representatives thereon, to compose the house of representatives after the 3d of March 1797.—An amendment was proposed by Mr. Benson, to establish the number of members at one for every thirty thousand persons, in the aggregate of the popolation of the united states; and to apportion these in such manner, that the additional members should be assigned to those states which had the largest fractions. This gave rise to a long debate; in which many of the arguments which had been previously used, in the discussion of the representation bill, were repeated. That clause in the constitution, which respects the apportionment of representatives and of direct taxes, was quoted, both by the advocates and the opposers, of Mr. Benson's proposed amendment, as authority for their opposite principles. The motion for amending, however, was finally negatived—Yeas, 24; nays, 33.

The bill having passed the house was sent to the senate, who passed it with sundry amendments.—The principal of these were, that the number of representatives should be increased to 120; that additional members should be assigned to those states which had the largest fractions, on the apportionment of one representative to every thirty thousand persons, and that the section which provided for a second enumeration should be expunged. After a tedious debate, the question was put for agreeing to the amendment which proposed an increase of the members to 120, and negatived—Yeas, 30; nays, 31.

The other amendments were also disagreed to, by the house. A conference, on the subject of these amendments, was held by managers on behalf of each house; but these separated, without being able to bring about an accommodation.—The senate continuing to insist upon their amendments, the subject was reconsidered in the house of representatives; and a motion, for receding from their disagreement to all the said amendments was carried—Yeas, 31; nays, 29.

Those who voted in the affirmative, were, Fisher Ames, Egbert Benson, Elias Boudinot, Shearjashub Bourne, Benjamin Bourne, Abraham Clarke, Thomas Fitzsimons, Elbridge Gerry, Nicholas Gilman, Benjamin Goodhue, James Gordon, Thomas Hartley, Israel Jacobs, Aaron Kitchell, John W. Kittera, John Laurance, Amasa Learned, Samuel Livermore, Frederick Augustus Muhlenberg, Nathaniel Niles, Cornelius C. Schoonmaker, Theodore Sedgwick, Jeremiah Smith, Israel Smith, John Steele, Peter Silvester, George Thatcher, Thomas Tredwel, John Vining, Jeremiah Wadsworth, and Artemas Ward.

Those who voted in the negative, were, John Baptist Ashe, Abraham Baldwin, Robert Barnwell, John Brown, William Findley, William B. Giles, Andrew Gregg, William Barry Grove, Daniel Heister, James Hillhouse, Daniel Huger, Philip Key, Richard Bland Lee, Nathaniel Macon, James Madison, John Francis Mercer, Andrew Moore, John Page, Josiah Parker, Joshua Seney, William Smith, Samuel Sterrett, Jonathan Sturges, Thomas Sumpter, Thomas Tuder Tucker, Abraham Venable, Alexander White, Hugh Williamson, and Francis Willis.

The bill thus passed was as follows—

An ACT *for an apportionment of Representatives among the several States, according to the first Enumeration.*

BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America in congress assembled, That from and after the third day of March, in the year one thousand seven hundred and ninety-three, the house of representatives shall be composed of one hundred and twenty members, elected in the several states according to the following apportionment; that is to say: Within the state of New-Hampshire, five; within the state of Massachusetts, sixteen; within the state of Vermont, three; within the state of Rhode-Island, two; within the state of Connecticut, eight; within the state of New-York, eleven; within the state of New-Jersey, six; within the state of Pennsylvania, fourteen; within the state of Delaware, two; within the state of Maryland, nine; within the state of Virginia, twenty-one; within the state of Kentucky, two; within the state of North-Carolina, twelve; within the state of South-Carolina, seven; and within the state of Georgia, two.

On the 26th of March, this bill was presented to the president of the united states, for his approbation; and, on the 5th of April, he returned it, with the following objections, to the house of representatives, in which it originated:

United States, April 5th, 1792.

Gentlemen of the house of Representatives,

I HAVE maturely considered the act passed by the two houses, intituled, "An act for an apportionment of representatives among the several states, according to the first enumeration;" and I return it to your house, wherein it originated, with the following objections.

First. The constitution has prescribed, that representatives shall be apportioned among the several states according to their respective numbers: and there is no one proportion or divisor, which, applied to the respective numbers of the states, will yield the number and allotment of representatives proposed by the bill.

Second. The constitution has also provided, that the number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand; which restriction is, by the context, and by fair and obvious construction, to be applied to the separate and respective numbers of the states: And the bill has allotted to eight of the states more than one for every thirty thousand.

G. WASHINGTON.

This was the first instance of a bill's being returned with the president's objections. It must afford pleasure to our fellow-citizens to see this precedent established, and to reflect that we have a chief magistrate sufficiently firm and independent, to exercise the powers vested in him by the constitution, in opposition to a majority in both houses of the legislature, when their measures appear to him to be either unconstitutional, or injurious to the public.

The bill was reconsidered, and the question for passing the same was negatived—Yeas, 28; nays, 33. So that it fell to the ground; the constitution having made the votes of two thirds of both houses necessary to pass a bill returned with objections by the president.

On the 9th of April, a new bill was reported to the house, for apportioning representatives among the respective states, according to the first enumeration. A motion to fix the ratio at *thirty-three* thousand was carried——*Yeas*, 34; *nays*, 30.

YEAS. Messrs. Ames, Barnwell, Benson, Boudinot, S. Bourne, B. Bourne, Clarke, Dayton, Fitzsimons, Gerry, Gilman, Goodhue, Gordon, Gregg, Hartley, Heister, Hillhouse, Huger, Jacobs, Kitchell, Kittera, Learned, Livermore, Niles, Sedgwick, J. Smith, I. Smith, W. Smith, Sturges, Silvester, Thatcher, Vining, Wadsworth, Ward.

NAYS. Messrs. Ashe, Baldwin, Brown, Findley, Giles, Griffin, Grove, Key, Lawrence, Lee, Macon, Madison, Mercer, Moore, Muhlenberg, Murray, Page, Parker, Schoonmaker, Seney, Sheredine, Steele, Sterett, Sumpter, Tredwell, Tucker, Venable, White, Williamson, Willis.

The ratio being thus fixed, the bill, without further amendment, was enacted into a law.

(To be continued.)

The CHRONICLE.

PHILADELPHIA, *Auguſt* 1.

A VERMONT paper, printed at Windſor, in that ſtate relates, that "the wife of Mr. Aſhbel Webb, of the town of Bradford was, on the 12th of July, delivered of a child the moſt ſingular and extraordinary of any, perhaps, ever known in this part of the world. It had two diſtinct heads, four arms, one body, and four legs. The child was ſtill-born, and the mother is in a favourable ſituation as to her health."

The Rev. Samſon Occum, a noted Indian preacher at Stockbridge, near Oneida in the ſtate of New-York, died on or about the 14th of July in the woods, while ſearching for timber, in company with a friend. He had been previouſly ill, but was tempted to make this excurſion upon a ſuppoſition that he was getting better. He was buried on the 15th. His funeral ſermon was preached by the Indian miſſionary, Kirkland from Matt. 24, verſe 44. Upwards of three hundred Indians, from different tribes, attended his funeral.

Auguſt 4. In conſequence of notice given in the newſpapers, and the adjournment that took place on the Mondy evening before, a number of citizens aſſembled in the ſtate-houſe yard on Tueſday the 31ſt ult. at 3 P. M. on the ſubject of appointing conferrees, &c. At half after three, an attempt was made to proceed to buſineſs, and Mr. M'Kean and Mr. Powel both named for chairman. After a noiſy conteſt of *Yes* and *No*, thoſe two gentlemen declined ſerving on the preſent occaſion. Other names were brought forward, and among them Meſſrs. Morris and Barclay. Mr. Wilſon endeavoured to decide which name commanded a majority, and a diviſion for this purpoſe was three times effected; but the meeting was ſo numerous that it was found impoſſible to determine which was the largeſt maſs, or to decide the queſtion by enumeration.—A laſt endeavour was made by the friends to conferrees to place Mr. Morris in the chair; ſome confuſion enſued, and the meeting was diſſolved in a tumultuous and unbecoming manner.

A few days ago the powder-mill at Springfield, in Maſſachuſetts, was blown up, by which unfortunate accident, Mr. Kennedy, the only workman then in the mill, loſt his life.

At the late commencement at the univerſity of Cambridge, in Maſſachuſetts, thirty two gentlemen were admitted to the degree of maſter of arts; three to the degree of bachelor of phyſic; five to doctor of laws; ſix doctors of divinity; and ſix to the degree of doctor of phyſic. Previouſly to theſe, thirty-ſeven were admitted to the degree of bachelor of arts.

On the 4th of July, the anniverſary of American Independence was celebrated at Dartmouth college, in New-Hampſhire. In the forenoon there were various exhibitions by the ſtudents, in public ſpeaking, muſic, &c. all which were highly applauded. In the afternoon the exerciſes were of a military kind, with a mock-battle, and other manœuvres.

A few days ſince, arrived in this river from Hamburgh, the brig Catharine, with upwards of one hundred and thirty paſſengers. They are intended to form a ſettlement in the Geneſee country, and are to be joined by upwards of 500 more of their countrymen in a ſhort time.

On the 24th of July ult. came into Boſton harbour in diſtreſs, a large raft-ſhip, that had been built at Knnebeck ſome time before, for the purpoſe of carrying timber to London. She is ſaid to be built entirely of timber, in one ſolid maſs, without plank or ſheathing, and has upwards of one thouſand tons on board. Although caulked between the timbers, it ſeems ſhe did not prove ſufficiently tight for ſea, and therefore put back for a refit.

On Sunday (July 22) the following melancholy accident happened at the camp near Alexandria, in Virginia. Serjeant Keech, of capt. Hannah's company, going through the manual exerciſe with a corporal, the latter had chanced to take up a muſket, which, for a particular purpoſe, had been left loaded. When they came to the fatal words—"Preſent---Fire"---the corporal did ſo, and lodged the contents in the ſerjeant's body, which inſtantly put a period to his exiſtence!

Capt Anderſon, in the brig Sally, arrived on Thurſday, in 15 days from St Euſtatius, brings accounts, that, on Saturday the 14th ult. a gale of wind happened at the windward iſlands, that was ſomewhat alarming. It blew from S. to S. S. E and continued about 8 hours with violence. That at St. Euſtatius moſt of the veſſels put to ſea, ſeveral loſt their anchors, and had not returned on Tueſday the 17th.—At Old Road, St. Kitts, a large ſhip, being unable to put ſea, was driven on ſhore, having on board 500 hhds. of ſugar, which with the ſhip, was entirely loſt.—At Guadaloupe and Martinico they had not heard of any damage, but ſuppoſe, at Baſſeterre and St. Pierre they muſt have been much expoſed.—He alſo relates, that at theſe iſlands there are great apprehenſions of a hurricane theſe months—that the ſages among them obſerve, with concern, the ſymptoms that almoſt conſtantly prevail previous to thoſe calamitous phenomena.

On Wedneſday arrived here the ſhip Pennſylvania, capt. Harding, from Havre de Grace, which place he left the 6th of June. American produce at that time was low, and there were pleaſing accounts of plentiful crops all over France.

On Thurſday morning was witneſſed a very melancholy event at Mr. Henry Kizer's powder-mill, in lower Merion-townſhip, Montgomery county, between the hours of nine and ten. There was a large quantity of power in the mill, which by accident took fire, and blew up with a great exploſion, which was heard at Schuylkill ferry, and was there ſuppoſed to be an earthquake. Mr. Kizer and three others, who were in the mill, were blown to pieces; and Mr. Henry Fraily, a copartner of Mr. Kizer, was ſo wounded that his life is deſpaired of. A young woman, who happened to be near the mill at the time it blew up, had both her legs broken, and was otherwiſe very much injured, by one of the rafters, which was carried from the building by the violence of the exploſion.

The Pittſburg gazette of July 28, ſays, "The Cornplanter has got home from the council at Buffaloe-creek, and informs that it was determined in that council that a number of chiefs of the ſix nations ſhould go on an embaſſy to the hoſtile Indians, to perſuade them to peace with the united ſtates.—Capt. Brady had been out a thirty days tour into the Indian country, but could not approach the Sanduſki town nearer than five miles, as he was diſcovered and followed a conſiderable diſtance by parties of the hoſtile Indians. From this it appears, that Sanduſki has not been deſerted, as reported ſome time ſince."

Auguſt 8. A new ſyſtem of military regulations for his army has been publiſhed by M. Fayette---ſeveral of the articles are ſevere. Whoever within reach of the army breaks ſilence is to be put in irons for ſix years---marauding is to be ſeverely puniſhed, alſo harſh treatment of priſoners. Death is the puniſhment of any ſoldier who cries out, *we are cut off*, *we are betrayed*, or any thing ſimilar. No man in command is to be queſtioned for acts of ſeverity which are neceſſary in an engagment. Officers are ſubject to double puniſhment for any fault they neglect to repreſs, or any act of diſobedience to which they give way. The camp of M. de la Fayette, it is ſaid, ſavours very little of the priſtine *delicateſſe* of the French armies---every officer being obliged to follow the example of the general, by being night and day in the camp.

Auguſt 11. By a perſon from Fort-Waſhington, arrived at Pittſburg, information was received that Col. Hardin, Major Trueman and two others were killed by the Indians, a ſhort diſtance from Fort-Jefferſon, on their way to the Indian towns, to invite them to a treaty.

Mr. Paine being informed that the Britiſh miniſtry intend to bring a proſecution againſt him, in a letter to the "Society for conſtitutional information," obſerves, a nation (as well the poor as the rich) has a right to know what any works are which are made the ſubject of proſecution. The getting out a cheap edition is, I conceive, ſays he, rendered more neceſſary---and he is accordingly proceeding with the work.---

The ſociety took into conſideration the contents of ſaid letter---and voted their thanks to Mr. Paine, for his diſintereſted patriotiſm---the ſociety paſſed ſundry reſolutions expreſſive of their determination to ſupport the author of the Rights of Man ---and to perſevere in the proſecution of the work for which they aſſociated.

There appear ſeveral intimations in foreign papers, that the combination againſt France will be conſiderably weakened by a great part of the ſtrength of the Pruſſian army being diverted towards Poland, to counter-act the pretenſions of the empreſs of Ruſſia to re-eſtabliſh the old form of government in that country. It ſeems certain however, that part of the Pruſſian army has marched with that of Auſtria, againſt

France. "They will amount together, to near 140,000 men, who are to move in five divisions. From the length of their march it was deemed impossible for them to begin the campaign effectually till towards the end of July."---The same papers mention the Prussian and Russian ambassadors at Paris being on the eve of their departure.

The military policy of General Fayete seems in every respect to be copied from the conduct of the American FABIUS at the beginning of the war with Great-Britain. By skirmishes with the enemy on the frontiers he will teach his soldiers the absolute necessity of discipline, and will give them the *habitude* of war, without venturing a decisive action with troops, who have been taught from their infancy to look upon themselves as mere machines, and are as absolutely such, in the military line, as the cannon and mortars that attend them.

In England there apppears to be a contest between the court party and the people, whether a reform in their government shall or shall not take place. The immense influence of the crown, tho' unable so far to blind the people as to make a union with the continental powers against France a popular measure, yet it is feared, can so far operate upon certain springs, as in a great degree to defeat the purposes of the reforming societies throughout the kingdom.

Two brigantines are on their way from Old Spain to South-America; their object is said to be a complete survey of the whole extensive coast of South-America, more particularly those parts subject to the jurisdiction of Spain.

The strict enforcement of the decree of the national assembly, confirming the mulattoes of the islands in their privileges, seems to be the only practicable method of restoring peace and good order to those islands. By the latest information the adoption and enforcing of the decree in Hispaniola has nearly destroyed the confederacy between the mulattoes and the insurgent negroes. In Martinico it has produced the happiest effects, and as soon as it arrived the free men of colour gave themselves up to the colonial assembly, and swore to remain inviolably attached.

The American funds had fluctuated in a very uncommon degree in London, within the last six months. Those who speculated in them in the first instance had made immense sums, and so high was the public opinion in their favour, that the 6 per cents were run up to 150; this fictitious value, however, did not last long, and the sudden fall is said to have been one cause of the failures in New-York.

August 15. Reports from the westward say, that the Indians were assembled to the number of four or five thousand, about the middle of July, at or near the Miamee towns. It is added, that they appear inclined for war, and mean to strike some important blow towards or during autumn.

Patriotic collections are making in most of the towns through England and Ireland to assist the French in their war against the combination of tyrants.

At a meeting of the president and managers of the Schuylkill and Susquehannah navigation, August 13th, 1792---It was resolved, That the work of the canal be immediately commenced on the Crown Level.

Extract of a letter from Bermuda, July 28.

"The ship Sovereign, capt. Welch, which arrived at Barbadoes the 13th inst. from London, on her passage out spoke the Lord Camden East-Indiaman, bound home with government dispatches from Lord Cornwallis, containing the particulars of the taking Seringapatam, after a severe conflict, but that Tippoo escaped. After the capture Tippo entered into treaty with the combined powers in the most humiliating manner, in which he gave up half his kingdom, was to pay three millions sterling in money, one half of which was to be immediately paid down in camp, and the other half in twelve months; his two eldest sons were given as hostages for the due performance of the treaty." ☞ *The above intelligence has since been confirmed.*

August 16. Accounts are received in London from the new colony of blacks at Sierra Leona, dated March 26; they are proceeding with the utmost diligence in clearing the land, and building houses—some have been sick, and some have died—Mr. Clarkson, the superintendent, had been sick, but was recovering.—The climate is described as being more salubrious than had been expected. The united content of all the neighbouring chiefs has been obtained to establish the settlement—and the dispositions of King Nambanna have appeared throughout to be extremely friendly. A warrant has received the signature of the king of Great-Britain for a grant of

£13,592, for the tranſporta tion of blacks from Nova-Scotia to the above ſettlement.

Auguſt 18. A ſoldier, by the name of Henry Hamilton, was condemned for mutiny, in attempting to take the life of enſign Devin, by ſticking him with a bayonet in the breaſt. He was carried to the gallows and every preparation made for his execution, when a reprieve arrived fro m the commander in chief.

An agricultural ſociety was inc orporated in Maſſachuſetts in March laſt; this ſociety is now organized, its officers choſen, and committees appointed in various parts of the ſtates to ſolicit ſubſcriptions, to promote the purpoſes of the inſtitution. There is no country in the world in which there is a greater field for agricultural improvement than America. In ſeveral of the ſtates agricultural ſocieties are eſtabliſhed. A mutual intercourſe and communications of obſervations, experiments, and diſcoveries, will be highly conducive to the promoting of this one of the firſt of all human concerns.

It is the moſt generally received opinion, that Ruſſia would have joined in the cauſe of the princes againſt France, but for her intentions on Poland. And her views againſt this regenerated kingdom were not diſcloſed until Pruſſia began to engage in the conflict againſt France. Pruſſia, however, jealous of Ruſſia's intention, appears deſirous of preventing her aggrandizement; or, perhaps, wiſhes to aſſert her claim to part of the territory of Poland, ſhould the ruin of that monarchical republic be effected. Be their intentions what they may, the Poles have taſted of the fountain of liberty—the invigorating draught will give them courage, and the juſtice of their cauſe ſtrength to repel, it is hoped, their oppreſſors. The manifeſto of Catharine, againſt the renovated empire, is marked with tyranny in every line—ſlightly veiled by an appearance of candour, founded on pretences ſcarcely plauſible in a deſpot's eye, covering motives of the baſeſt kind; perhaps, upon the whole, forming the darkeſt trait in this woman's character, and it is to be hoped the laſt attempt of her boundleſs ambition.

Auſtria with her whole force preſſes on France, who, with the energy of freedom will reſiſt the blow, and if fortunate enough to make an impreſſion upon the Auſtrian arms or territory, will carry, not death and deſtruction, but liberty and proſperity to the centre of the tyrant's dominions. Since the beginning of the French revolution, the nation has ſhewn marks of unexampled patriotiſm, and an ardent love of liberty; they begin to be diſtinguiſhed for order and ſyſtem, which united to the firſt will produce energy. Upon the whole, though the Auſtrian troops may boaſt of ſuperior diſcipline; yet this is their only advantage. The loſs of ſoldiers with them will be irreparable; but does a French citizen fall in the ranks, two will ſtep forward to fill his place.

Spain will probably take no part in the conteſt. England has declared her neutrality; Sardinia may aſſiſt with her good will, her means in men and money are not great.

A ſpirit of reformation has gone abroad. Engliſhmen call for a more equal repreſentation in the popular branch of their legiſlature, but wealth ſeems to outweigh numbers.

Iriſhmen complain, and the Weſt-India colonies pretend that it is abſurd to be governed by laws made three thouſand miles from them, by men they don't know, and conceit they have a right to ſell the produce of their induſtry to whom they pleaſe, and at the higheſt prices they can get. They begin to entertain an opinion that it is hard to ſtarve when plenty is at their door. In ſhort, they act the part of undutiful children, diſlike the commands of their mother country, and are ungrateful and unnatural enough to prefer their proſperity to that of their common parent. Caſting an eye to the happineſs enjoyed by their elder brothers, they appear deſirous of being conſidered as of age, and wiſh to be permitted to ſhift for themſelves.

By ſeveral late arrivals from the Engliſh windward iſlands, we have learnt that there is the greateſt uneaſineſs between the merchants and planters of thoſe iſlands, reſpecting the regulations which have lately taken place in England on ſugars. A deputation from all the windward and leeward iſlands were to meet on the 24th of July, at Dominica, for the purpoſe of taking into conſideration the above, as well as the ſlave-trade buſineſs, and to petition parliament on the ſubject. In St. Kitts they had already come to a determination not to pay the king's duty of 4 1-2 per cent on rum, in conſequence of which actions are entered into againſt the defaulters.

—In Jamaica, it is said, this four and an half per cent. duty is the occasion of clamour equally violent against government.

The subsequent resolutions have been agreed to by the council and assembly of the island of St. Vincents:

"First, They feel it particularly incumbent upon them, in the present critical state of affairs, to insist upon their right of internal legislation in all matters relating to the internal government of the colony.

"Secondly, They consider these islands intitled to a full recompense from Great-Britain for whatever losses they may sustain in consequence of either a gradual, or total abolition of the slave-trade.

"Thirdly, They feel themselves at all times entitled to effectual protection from the mother country, and they conceive it essentially necessary, that the protection now afforded to them should be encreased, inasmuch as the internal security of the colonies are greatly endangered by the questions agitated in the parliament of Great-Britain.

"Fourthly, They consider themselves justified in expressing, in the most unequivocal terms, their astonishment and indignation at the unconstitutional and oppressive measures adopted by the British parliament, for reducing the price of British sugars at the British market, far below the price the sugars of the foreign islands are likely to obtain at all the other European markets: and for the further purposes of clogging and restricting a trade hitherto supported and encouraged by repeated acts of parliament."

The proposed canal between the Delaware and the Schuylkill is ordered to be staked out, and the work commenced without delay. The water is to be taken from the Schuylkill at the mouth of Stoney-Creek, to lead from thence to the northern bounds of this city. The fall, when it reaches the Delaware, will be about fifty feet.

On monday, the 6th of this instant, the supreme court of the united states met, when all the judges were present. The attorney-general of the united states gave notice, that he should move the court on Wednesday following, for a mandamus to the circuit-court of Pennsylvania, commanding them to proceed on the petition of William Hogburne, a claimant of a pension, in which they had refused to proceed, from a supposed nullity of the pension-law. The motion was accordingly begun on wednesday; when, after some prefatory remarks, the attorney-general was asked from the bench, whether he conceived it to be an official right to offer such a motion, as he had intimated it to be? He answered, that he did conceive it to be an official right. Upon which several observations were made, and the debate continued from day to day, until saturday last. The opinions of the judges being then taken, they were equally divided. In consequence of this division, it was improper for the attorney-general to move the subject officially. He then appeared as counsel for the invalids; and the motion, after being accompanied with the reasons, which influenced him to believe that the inferior court had erred, was postponed for a final decision until the next court. The important question "whether a state can be sued," is also set for the first day of the next term.

August, 22. There has been another change in the French ministry——The ministers of war, of contributions, and of the interior departments, were displaced. M. Dumourier, late minister of foreign affairs, has been placed at the head of the war department; M. Jaillac is made minister of foreign affairs, and M. Maulde is placed at the head of the interior.

The directors of the western inland lock-navigation in the state of New-York, having formed a board, and chosen general Schuyler president, the work is to be commenced immediately.

A canal has been proposed, down the waters of the Brandywine in the state of Delaware—Commissioners were appointed by the government to view the ground through which the canal should pass—a committee was lately chosen by a large number of the inhabitants met at Chester, to attend the commissioners on this business.

From the various circumstances which are related as attendant on the death of Elizabeth Reeves, we believe that the following particulars respecting that atrocious murder, may be relied on as facts.——Miss Reeves had on wednesday evening been on a short visit to a relation in Coombs's alley, which she left about eight o'clock, to go home, alone, and without any thing uncommon having occurred: from that time

ſhe was not ſeen or heard of until early on thurſday morning, when her body was diſcovered lying on the mud with the face down, in the dock near Warder's wharf. On examining, it was found that the moſt brutal violence had been found on her perſon, and a large wound on the left ſide of her mouth, and bruiſes on other parts, ſhewed ſhe muſt have ſuffered much from the moſt ſhameful abuſe; ſeveral of her teeth were looſe.—It appeared, from marks of her feet in the mud, that ſhe had moved ſeveral ſteps from the place ſhe was firſt thrown, where her comb and a ribband were found. Nothing has yet appeared to detect the villainous perpetrators of this infernal deed, but a boy declared that he ſaw two men in a batteau very early in the morning at the particular ſpot where the body was found, who made off upon his approach, and went on board a ſhallop down the river. Miſs Reeves was about 17 years old, and apprenticed to a mantua-maker; and when it is conſidered that ſhe bore a very good character, and was remarkable for her amiable deportment and pleaſing manners, the loſs to ſociety muſt be the greater, and excite in the breaſts of every friend to humanity a deteſtation of the diabolical actors of this horrid tragedy.

There was a conſiderable ſkirmiſh between the van guard of M. la Fayettes' army, and a part of the Auſtrian army, on the 12th of June. It appears the latter gained ſome advantage in the beginning of the action—but M. la Fayette coming up with a reinforcement, he retook all the ground loſt, and the enemy retired—the French followed them upwards of a league,—every ſtation was retaken, and the French army diſplayed on a height to offer battle; but the deſign of the Auſtrians appears to have been only to ſurpriſe and cut off the van-guard of the French; not having ſucceeded, they retired. Of the French the lieut colonel of the volunteers of Cote d'Or, and M. Gouvion, were killed. The Auſtrians carried off part of their dead, and left a conſiderable number on the field.

The above appears to be the buſineſs, on which the ſtory is founded of M. la Fayette's taking Namur, and killing 2 or 3000 Auſtrians.

The Ruſſians have entered the Poliſh Ukraine, but have been beaten in all the ſkirmiſhes which have hitherto taken place. The king of Poland is to command the army in perſon.

A proclamation againſt ſeditious writings has been iſſued in Ireland.

Conſiderable riots have taken place at Edinburgh, in conſequence of the magiſtrates' interpoſing to prevent the populace from burning Mr. Dundas in effigy.

Extract of a letter from Charleſton, S. C. Aug. 14.

"The devaſtations in French Hiſpaniola, which now ſeem to be drawing to a concluſion, the hurricane in the windward iſlands, which has done an immenſity of damage to their buildings, &c. and a variety of other circumſtances, ſeem to point out an increaſing demand in the Weſt-Indies for American lumber. It is well known that the lumber of this country and Georgia is preferable (particularly the pine) to any in the united ſtates, for its firmneſs and durability, yet ſo miſerably thin is our ſtate of the neceſſary hands at preſent, that ſcarcely more ſawed lumber is brought down the river than is ſufficient for our own conſumption, not to mention a conſiderable and conſtant importation from Georgia. It may even be aſſerted, with ample truth and juſtice, that the increaſe of Charleſton is greatly retarded for want of ſufficient ſupplies of this article. With every advantage from nature, this ſtate ſeems to ſuffer not a little from an ill founded prejudice among foreigners of the inſalubrity of its air. In the neighbourhood of the rice ſwamps it is indeed ſickly towards autumn, but as theſe parts are generally inhabited by negroes, who have the entire care of cultivating the rice, it ought not to deter hardy and induſtrious men from the northward from coming and making their fortunes on the immenſe waſte of our interior timber lands. Carolina as yet generally lies in a ſtate of uncultivated nature; no country has more excellent mill-ſeats; our rivers and their branches are innumerable; and the aid of art is ſoon to be called in to form junctions between them by means of canals. Though our rivers are generally ſuppoſed ſhallow, yet there is water enough in moſt of them, at certain ſeaſons, to carry down ſhips of three hundred tons, that might be built ſeveral hundred miles from the ſea coaſt. With all theſe advantages, induſtrious and monied ſtrangers will find no place in which their expectations are likely to be better gratified than in South-Carolina, a ſtate that is riſing into the moſt rapid importance, and only wants the nerves of freemen, and a more improved back country to render her capital the firſt, or only next to the firſt, in the united ſtates."

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS, made in PHILADELPHIA, in the MONTH of JULY, 1792.

Days.	Barom. Eng. foot In.	Thermometer of Farenh. D.	Thermometer of Reaum. D.	Anemometer Prevail. Wind				WEATHER.
1	29 10 5	72 5	18 0	W				Fair
	29 9 12	93 9	27 5	WSW	1	1	1	Overcast, storm
2	29 9 11	72 5	18 0	WSW				Cloudy
	29 10 4	95 0	28 0	W				Fair
3	30 0 5	73 6	13 5	ESE				Overcast
	30 0 2	72 5	18 0	ESE	1			Rainy
4	29 10 11	72 5	18 0	E				Idem
	29 10 11	63 5	14 0	NE	1			Idem
5	30 0 12	54 5	10 0	NE				Cloudy
	30 1 3	70 2	17 0	N				Fair
6	30 2 13	59 0	12 0	N				Idem
	30 2 6	79 2	21 0	N				Cloudy
7	30 2 6	63 5	14 0	WSW				Idem
	30 1 0	80 0	21 4	Variab				Idem
8	30 0. 2	64 2	14 3	S				Overcast
	29 10 7	81 5	22 0	SW				Cloudy
9	29 9 4	70 2	17 0	SW				Idem
	29 9 0	88 2	25 0	SSW	1			Fair, thunder
10	29 9 14	71 4	17 5	WSW				Idem
	29 11 7	91 6	26 5	WNW				Idem
11	30 1 2	70 2	17 0	W				Idem
	30 1 0	88 2	25 0	ENE				Cloudy
12	30 0 14	68 0	16 0	NE				Idem
	29 11 6	87 0	24 5	SW				Idem
13	29 11 6	69 0	16 5	SW				Idem
	29 11 3	85 0	23 6	SW				Overcast,
14	30 0 1	65 3	14 8	SSE				Idem
	30 0 1	89 0	25 4	NNE				Cloudy
15	30 1 0	64 8	14 6	NNE				Fair
	30 0 6	88 7	25 2	W				Idem
16	29 11 12	72 5	18 0	SW	1			Rainy
	29 10 7	91 6	26 5	SW				Fair
17	29 9 13	70 2	17 0	SW				Rainy
	29 10 0	82 61	22 51	SW	11	1	1	Overcast

Days.	Barom. Eng. foot In.	Thermometer of Farenh. D.	Thermometer of Reaum. D.	Anemometer Prevail. Wind				WEATHER
18	29 11 7	63 5	14 0	NNW				Fair
	29 11 7	83 7	23 0	NE				Idem
19	29 10 12	65 7	15 0	NE				Foggy, fair
	29 9 5	87 3	24 6	E				Fair
20	29 8 11	68 0	16 0	WSW				Idem
	29 9 3	87 0	24 5	NW				Idem
21	29 10 3	58 0	16 0	NE	1			Rainy
	29 10 12	73 6	18 5	NW				Cloudy
22	29 11 9	63 5	14 0	NE				Idem
	30 0 10	80 4	21 5	SSW				Idem
23	30 0 7	65 7	15 0	SE	1			Overcast, rain
	30 0 0	67 0	15 5	NE				Rainy,
24	29 11 3	61 2	13 0	NE	1			Idem
	29 11 3	63 5	14 0	NNE				Overcast
25	30 0 0	60 0	12 5	NW				Cloudy
	30 0 11	72 5	18 0	NW				Idem
26	30 2 2	59 0	12 0	WNW				Fair
	30 2 3	81 5	22 0	NW				Idem
27	30 1 14	63 5	14 0	WSW				Idem
	30 1 0	82 6	22 5	WSW				Overcast
28	30 0 10	65 7	15 0	E	1			Idem, rainy
	30 0 6	82 6	22 5	E				Rainy
29	30 0 0	61 2	13 0	E	1			Rainy
	29 11 15	65 7	15 0	ENE				Idem
30	29 11 10	62 4	13 5	NE				Overcast
	29 10 14	70 2	17 0	NE				Fair
31	29 11 0	61 2	13 0	SW				Foggy, fair
	29 10 4	82 6	22 0	SW				Fair, cloudy

RESULT.								
	Mean greatest	30 2 1	95 0 24 0	SW				
	30th least ele	29 8 11	54 5 10 0	&	10	2	1	Fair and variable.
	Variation	6 3	Variation	NE				
	Mean eleva	29 11 01	73 4 18 4		1	1	1	1

My affectionate regards to Dr. Price and all our good friends; and believe me yours,

dum spiro,

JOHN ADAMS.

Rhode Island is to become one of us on the 29th May.

Thomas Brand-Hollis, esq.
Chesterfield-street, Westminster.

VII.

New York, June 11, 1790.

DEAR SIR,

I have received your kind letter of March 29th and the packet of pamphlets, and I pray you to accept of my best thanks for both. I sent you lately by general Mansel some of our rough matters. The boxes of books you sent by captain Bernard arrived safely, I know.

You seem to suppose our coasts in danger from the African pirates. In this I presume you are deceived by the artifices of the London insurance offices, for we are in no more danger than the empire of China is.

The great revolution in France is wonderful, but not supernatural. The hand of Providence is in it, I doubt not; working however by natural and ordinary means, such as produced the reformation in religion in the sixteenth century.

That all men have one common nature, is a principle, which will now universally prevail: and equal rights, and equal duties will, in a just sense, I hope be inferred from it. But equal ranks and equal property never can be inferred from it, any more than equal understanding, agility, vigour, or beauty. Equal laws are all that ever can be desired from human equality.

I am delighted with Dr. Price's sermon on patriotism. But there is a sentiment or two which I should explain a little. He guards his hearers and readers, very judiciously, against the extremes of adulation and contempt. "The former is the extreme" he says, "to which mankind in general have been most prone."*

The generality of rulers have treated men as your English jockies treat their horses—convinced them first that they were their *masters*, and next that they were their *friends*: at least they have pretended to do so. Mankind have, I agree, behaved too much like horses; been rude, wild and mad, until they were mastered, and then been too tame, gentle and dull.

I think our friend should have stated it thus. The great and perpetual distinction in civilized societies has been between the rich, who are few, and the poor, who are many. When the

* "Discourse on the love of our country, delivered November 4, 1789," 4th edit. p. 22.

many are masters they are too unruly, and then the few are too tame, and afraid to speak out the truth. When the few are masters, they are too severe, and then the many are too servile. This is the strict truth. The few have had most art and union, and therefore have generally prevailed in the end. The inference of wisdom from these premises is, that neither the poor, nor the rich, should ever be suffered to be masters. They should have equal power to defend themselves: and that their power may be always equal, there should be an independent mediator between them, always ready, always able, and always interested to assist the weakest. Equal laws can never be made or maintained without this balance.

You see I still hold fast my scales, and weigh every thing in them. The French must finally become my disciples, or rather the disciples of Zeno: or they will have no equal laws, no personal liberty, no property, no lives.

I am very much employed in business, and this must be my apology for neglecting so much to write to you: but I will be as good a correspondent as I can—I hope you will not forget your old friend.

In this country the pendulum has vibrated * * *

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France has severe trials to endure from the same cause. Both have found, or will find, that to place property at the mercy of a majority who have no property is—committere agnum lupo.—My fundamental maxim of government is, never trust the lamb to the custody of the wolf. If you are not perfectly of my mind at present, I hereby promise and assure you, that you will live to see that I am precisely right.

Thus arrogantly concludes

your assured friend,

JOHN ADAMS.

Thomas Brand-Hollis, esq.
Chesterfield-street, Westminster.

VIII.

New York, November 3, 1790.

DEAR SIR,

By Mr. Broom, a worthy citizen of our states, I take the pleasure to inform you, that I have received your kind letter, and have sent the two packets to Dr. Willard and to Harvard college. As these packets have been delayed by their address to me, I beg the favour of you in future to address any favours of the kind, intended for the college, to the care of my son, "John Quincy Adams, counsellor at law, Court-street, Boston," who will think it an honour and a pleasure to obey your orders. Your favours to me, you will please to address to me at Phila-

delphia, to which city I am to remove with my family to-morrow.

Philadelphia is to be my residence for the future, and the seat of government. My address will be, John Adams, vice-president of the United States, Bush-hill, Philadelphia.

This country, sir, is as happy as it deserves to be. A perfect calm and contentment reigns in every part. The new national government enjoys as much of the confidence of the people as it ought to enjoy, and has undoubtedly greatly promoted their freedom, prosperity and happiness. Nothing can be more acceptable, than the little pamphlet you have sent me, and I pray you to accept my best thanks.

We are very anxious for the cause of liberty in France, but are apprehensive that their constitution cannot preserve their union. Yet we presume not to judge for them when will be the proper time, and what the method of introducing the only adequate remedy against competitions. You know what I mean. My family, your friends, are all well. Pray write as often as you can to him who is, for life,

with great esteem
your friend and humble servant,

JOHN ADAMS.

Thomas Brand-Hollis, esq.

TWO LETTERS FROM MRS. ADAMS.

I.

Portsmouth, Fountain Inn, Aprill 5, 1788.

DEAR SIR,

There is something so disagreeable to one's feelings in taking a final leave of our friends, and thinking that it is the last time we shall ever meet, that I avoided placing myself in that situation as much as possible. On this account I neither bid my worthy friends Dr. Price or Mr. Hollis adieu; for those two gentlemen I have the greatest esteem and regard, and regret the necessity which deprives me of their personal acquaintance. I will, however, flatter myself that their friendship will extend beyond the spot where it was first contracted, and its kind effusions follow me to a distant land.

May I hope, sir, to hear of your welfare and happiness, in which I shall always rejoice, whenever an opportunity offers, after my arrival in America. The Hyde will ever be remembered by me; and the friendship and hospitality of its owner, as the most agreeable scene in my recollection. I designed to have requested a few of the flower seeds from the garden, that I might have planted them with my own hand, and nurtured them with my own care, whenever I arrive in America.

As you have been pleased to give a station to some of my family round your habitation, there can be no harm in my wish-

ing to transplant some of yours to a soil and climate equally salubrious, and perhaps more productive than their own native clime. We have been waiting here nearly a week for a change of wind, and as we have no acquaintance here, the time is rather heavy. Most of our books we sent on board the ship; and those we have with us, we have read. Good Dr. Wren! I always mourned his death, but never so sensibly felt his loss as now.

Pray remember me affectionately to our friend Mrs. Jebb. Mr. Adams is taking his daily walk. Was he here, I am sure he would bid me present his affectionate regards to you, and join me in every sentiment of esteem, with which I am,

dear sir,
your obliged friend
and humble servant,

A. Adams.

Thomas Brand-Hollis, esq.
Chesterfield-street, London.

II.

New-York, September 6, 1790.

MY DEAR SIR,

You ask, in one of your letters to Mr. Adams, what is become of Mrs. Adams that I do not hear from her?

If my heart had not done you more justice than my pen, I would disown it. I have so long omitted writing to you, that my conscience has been a very severe accuser of me. But be assured, my dear sir, that I never fail to talk of you with pleasure, and think of you with affection. I place the hours spent at the Hyde amongst some of the most pleasurable of my days, and I esteem your friendship as one of the most valuable acquisitions that I made in your country:—a country that I should most sincerely rejoice to visit again, if I could do it without crossing the ocean. I have sometimes been suspected of partiality for the preference which I have given to England, but were I to live out of America, that country would have been my choice.

I have a situation here, which, for natural beauty, may vie with the most delicious spot I ever saw. It is a mile and half distant from the city of New-York. The house is situated upon an eminence; at an agreeable distance, flows the noble Hudson bearing upon her bosom the fruitful productions of the adjacent country. On my right hand are fields beautifully variegated with grass and grain to a great extent, like the valley of Honiton in Devonshire. Upon my left, the city opens to view, intercepted here and there, by a rising ground, and an ancient oak. In front, beyond the Hudson, the Jersey shores present an exuberance of a rich well cultivated soil. The venerable oaks, and broken ground, covered with wild shrubs, which surround me, give a natural beauty to the spot which is truly enchanting. A

lovely variety of birds serenade me morning and evening, rejoicing in their liberty and security, for I have as much as possible prohibited the grounds from invasion: and sometimes almost wished for game laws, when my orders have not been sufficiently regarded. The partridge, the woodcock, and the pigeon are too great temptations to the sportsmen to withstand. How greatly would it add to my happiness to welcome here my much esteemed friend. Tis true we have a large portion of the blue and gold, of which you used to remind me, when you thought me an Egyptian; but, however I might hanker after the good things of America, I have been sufficiently taught to value and esteem other countries besides my own.

You was pleased to inform us, that your adopted family flourished in your soil, mine has received an addition. Mrs. Smith, Mr. Adams' daughter, and the wife of colonel W. Stephen Smith, respecting the name of the great literary benefactor of her native state, and in grateful remembrance of the friendly attention, and patriotick character of its present possessor, has named her new-born son Thomas-Hollis. She desires me to present you her affectionate remembrance. Mr. Adams is absent upon a journey, or he would have written you a letter of a later date than that which Mr. Knox is the bearer of. This gentleman is a brother of our secretary of war, and is appointed consul to Dublin. He is intelligent, and can answer you any question respecting our government, and politicks, which you may wish to know; but if he should not see you, I know it will give you pleasure to learn that our union is complete by the accession of Rhode Island; that our government acquires strength, confidence and stability daily. That peace is in our borders, and plenty in our dwellings; and we earnestly pray that the kindling flames of war, which appear to be bursting out in Europe, may by no means be extended to this rising nation. We enjoy freedom in as great a latitude as is consistent with our security, and happiness. God grant that we may rightly estimate our blessings.

Pray remember me, in the most affectionate terms to Dr. Price, and to Mrs. Jebb, and be assured, my dear sir, that I am, with every sentiment of regard and esteem,

yours, &c.

ABIGAIL ADAMS.

SILVA, No. 55.

.... Jam glandes atque arbuta sacrae
Deficerent silvae. Virg. 1. Georg. 149.

RICHARD CROMWELL.

RICHARD CROMWELL, in the decline of his life, was compelled by his daughters to appear in chancery, before Sir John Holt, chief justice, and first commissioner for keeping the great seal in the reign of Queen Anne. On that occasion, Holt desired Cromwell to sit with him on the bench, insisted on his remaining covered, and, after reprimanding the daughters, who wished to deprive their poor father of his property, made a decree in Cromwell's favour, to the great satisfaction of the court and her majesty.

IMMORTAL FAME

may be very short-lived. Dryden somewhere extols a nameless name, in strains like these:

> Holmes, whose name shall live in epick song,
> While musick numbers, or while verse has feet.

DR. FRANKLIN.

It is well known what hard thoughts and hard speeches were occasioned in some real and some pretended friends of republican liberty in this country, by the establishment of the society of the Cincinnati, which thirty years trial has proved as harmless as the Historical Society, or any charitable association. Dr. Franklin probably had his share of jealousy and dislike towards the institution; but did not choose to give explicit judgment against a proceeding, which was generally popular and countenanced by a great part of the best citizens. The Marquis de la Fayette, with whom it was a favourite project, in company with the doctor, said, "Pray sir, what is your opinion of the establishment of the Cincinnati?" "Why truly, Marquis," said the doctor slily, "I have no opinion of it at all."

SIR HARBOTTLE GRIMSTON

Concludes his eloquent Epistle dedicatory of Croke Elizabeth to Charles II. with these words:

"I beseech your majesty to accept this poor oblation from the heart and hands of him who makes it his daily prayers that you may live long, and triumphantly reign; and that your *sceptre* may, like *Aaron's rod*, bud and blossom, and be an eternal testimony against all rebels."

And of the three volumes of judge Croke's reports, Sir Harbottle, in his admirable preface, which immediately follows the epistle dedicatory, after the life and character of his illustrious author, says, "concerning the whole work itself, I may think and not immodestly use the words of the Roman Praeco, proclaiming the Ludi Seculares: Venite et videte quod nemo mortalium vidit aut visurus est."

In the letters between Erskine and Boswell, published in London somewhere about the year 1763, is the following

ODE ON GLUTTONY.

Hail Gluttony! O let me eat
Immensely at thy awful board,
On which to serve the stomach meet
What art and nature can afford.
I'll furious cram, devoid of fear,
Let but the roast and boil'd appear,
Let me but see a smoking dish,
I care not whether fowl or fish.
Then rush ye floods of ale adown my throat,
And in my belly make the victuals float.

And yet why trust a greasy cook?
Or give to meat the time of play?
While every trout gulps down a hook,
And poor dumb beasts harsh butchers slay
Why seek the dull, sauce-smelling gloom,
Of the beef-haunted dining room;
Where D———r gives to every guest
With liberal hand whate'er is best;
While you in vain th' insurance must invoke,
To give security you shall not choke?

UNPUBLISHED LETTER OF MR. HUME.

The following letter from Mr. Hume to Lord Hardwick, respecting King James' II. manuscripts in the Scotch college at Paris, and the character and conduct of Charles II. was translated for and published in the Mercure de France, for November 1807, No. 332. As Mr. Fox's masterly, though imperfect history of the reign of James II. is now published in this country, Mr. Hume's letter must be doubly interesting. The retranslation subjoined (for the original, as the French publishers say, was in the possession of M. Joncourt, librarian to the prince of Orange) is taken from the Literary Panorama, for August 1808. page 950.

Compiègne, 23d July, 1764.

My Lord, Soon after my arrival at Paris, I had the curiosity to consult the Memoirs of James II. They form about thirteen volumes in folio, all written with that king's own hand, without

being reduced into regular history. Such is, for instance, an account of the negotiations that preceded the second Dutch war; a point of history which has always appeared to me extremely obscure, and perplexed with a multiplicity of contradictions. Father Gordon, principal of the Scotch college, an obliging and communicative person, nevertheless made some difficulty of permitting me to peruse this passage; but after I had assured him of my having been employed in the office of the secretary of state, and that I was waiting for an authoritative permission to consult the French *Registers* which were expected to contain the treaty concluded between Charles II. and Louis XIV. all his scruples ceased, and I inspected the MS. I am about to mention its contents, by recollection, My Lord, for I have left at Paris the different extracts, that I made from it, for all of which I had the consent of Father Gordon.

The treaty was concluded at the end of 1669, or the beginning of 1670, the memoirs of the time have not assigned it a precise date. It was Lord Arundel, of Wardour, who signed it secretly, in a journey which he made to Paris for the purpose. The two principal articles stipulate the re-establishment of the Catholic religion in England, and an offensive alliance between the two powers against Holland. Louis promises to Charles an annual subsidy of £.200,000; with 6,000 troops in case of insurrection. As to Holland, that was to be divided according to the basis afterwards described by the Abbe Primi. England was to have Zealand, and the seaports: all the rest was to form the division of the king of France and the prince of Orange. Besides that, there was no mention made of establishing arbitrary power in Great Britain. Because, probably, the king regarded that event as a necessary consequence of the projected revolution, and that, moreover, it formed a part of his plans, as of his brother's, to combine that important undertaking with the affairs of religion. But Louis had also other views: to promote which he sent the duchess of Orleans to Dover, with instructions to persuade her brother the king, that it was necessary to begin with ruining the republick, before attempting the change of religion in England. These hints displeased the duke of York, who constantly opposed this deviation from the general plan. I must own to you, my Lord, that this MS. has convinced me that I had been often deceived in regard to the character of Charles II. I had, till that time, been of opinion that the careless and what may be called the indifferent disposition of that prince had rendered him incapable of devotion, and that he had all his life fluctuated between deism and popery; but I acknowledge that Lord Halifax had better developed the secret sentiments of Charles, than I had done, when he said that this monarch affected irreligion the better to conceal his zeal for the Catholic faith. His brother informs us, that immediately after the treaty was signed, he assembled his cabinet council, and that he spoke to them of the re-establishment of the Romish religion with so much earnestness

that the tears stood in his eyes. I have often been astonished at the blindness of the two brothers who suffered themselves to be carried away by their religious opinions, so far as to imagine that on the slightest occasion they would be adopted by the clergy and the nobility, in which there can be no doubt but they were extremely mistaken, for the writings of the time make no mention of this disposition of mind. However that might be, the princes believed it, and trusted to it principally for the success of their undertaking.

I shall profit, probably, of a new edition of my history to correct my mistakes on this affair, as well as on sundry others of less importance. While waiting for that time, I am happy in an opportunity of gratifying your lordship's curiosity, and of expressing my acknowlegment for your obliging behaviour towards me ever since I undertook to write the reign of Elizabeth. I shall think myself extremely fortunate if your lordship will furnish me with frequent opportunities of this nature. I cannot at present answer the question which you have put to me, my lord, concerning the Gallery of Fortifications; but immediately on my return to Paris I shall have the honour of informing your lordship on the result of my inquiries.

I have the honour to be, &c.

DAVID HUME.

Louis de Joncourt,
Librarian to the prince of Orange.

SIR F. NORTON.

Upon Sir Fletcher Norton's appointment to be chief justice in eyre, Mr. Burke made him the following compliment: "Your dignity, sir, is too high for a jurisdiction over wild beasts; your learning and talents are too valuable to be wasted in gloomy pomp, as chief justice of a desert. I cannot reconcile it to myself, that you should be stuck up as a useless piece of antiquity."

ORIGINAL POETRY.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

On seeing a White Rose, dry and faded, which the preceding evening had been presented by a young Lady.

June 21, 1809.

1

Dear girl, it was only last night,
That you gave me this rose in its bloom;
How delicate then was its white,
How richly it breath'd its perfume!

2
But alas! in one night's little hour
All its beauties are wither'd and dead;
Gone the delicate hues of the flower,
And gone the sweet fragrance it shed!

3
This rose, late so blooming and fair,
Can it e'er be an emblem of thee?
Last night it was what you now are;
What 'tis now, say, can you ever be?

4
The bloom on your cheek, that now glows,
The lustre, that beams from your eye,
Shall that bloom ever fade like the rose?
Shall that lustre e'er languish and die?

5
But the beautiful white rose of truth,
Shall by charms never fading engage,
It blends with the blushes of youth,
And softens the paleness of age.

6
Oh let then this rose, dearest maid,
O'er thy face all its sweetness diffuse;
To me then, thy cheek ne'er shall fade,
Nor thine eye its blue radiance lose.

C.

HYMN.

My God, I thank thee! may no thought
E'er deem thy chastisements severe;
But may this heart, by sorrow taught,
Calm each wild wish, each idle fear.

Thy mercy bids all nature bloom;
The sun shines bright and man is gay;
Thine equal mercy spreads the gloom,
That darkens o'er his little day.

Full many a throb of grief and pain
Is earth's pale wanderer doom'd to know;
But not one prayer is breathed in vain,
Nor does one tear unheeded flow.

Thy various messengers employ;
Thy purposes of love fulfil;
And mid the wreck of human joy
May kneeling faith adore thy will.

A CASTLE IN THE AIR.

I'll tell you, friend, what sort of wife,
Whene'er I scan this scene of life,
Inspires my waking schemes;
And when I sleep, with form so light,
Dances before my ravish'd sight,
In sweet aerial dreams.

The rose its blushes need not lend,
Nor yet the lily with them blend,
To captivate my eyes.
Give me a cheek, the heart obeys,
And, sweetly mutable, displays
Its feelings, as they rise;

Features, where pensive, more than gay,
Save when a rising smile doth play,
The sober thought you see;
Eyes, that all soft and tender seem,
And kind affections round them beam,
But most of all on me;

A form, though not of finest mould,
Where yet a something you behold,
Unconsciously doth please;
Manners, all graceful without art,
That to each look and word impart
A modesty and ease.

But still her air, her face, each charm,
Must speak a heart with feeling warm,
And mind inform the whole;
With mind her mantling cheek must glow,
Her voice, her beaming eye must show
An all-inspiring soul.

Ah! could I such a being find,
And were her fate to mine but join'd
By Hymen's silken tye,
To her myself, my all I'd give,
For her alone delighted live,
For her consent to die.

Whene'er by anxious gloom oppress'd,
On the soft pillow of her breast
My aching head I'd lay;
At her sweet smile each care should cease,
Her kiss infuse a balmy peace,
And drive my griefs away.

In turn, I'd soften all her care,
Each thought, each wish, each feeling share;
Should sickness e'er invade,

My voice should sooth each rising sigh,
My hand the cordial should supply;
I'd watch beside her bed.

Should gath'ring clouds our sky deform,
My arms should shield her from the storm;
And, were its fury hurl'd,
My bosom to its bolts I'd bare,
In her defence undaunted dare
Defy th' opposing world.

Together should our prayers ascend,
Together humbly would we bend,
To praise the Almighty name:
And when I saw her kindling eye
Beam upwards to her native sky,
My soul should catch the flame.

Thus nothing should our hearts divide,
But on our years serenely glide,
And all to love be given:
And, when life's little scene was o'er,
We'd part, to meet and part no more,
But live and love in heaven. C.

If the following Ode be read with that enthusiasm, which, we think, it cannot fail to excite, its minute defects will escape observation. It was not until the third reading, that we found that the first line has no correspondent in rhyme or measure. We should be glad frequently to enrich our pages with the lines of a muse who can claim some kindred with him, of whom Horace says:

Monte decurrens velut amnis, imbres
Quem super notas aluere ripas,
Fervet, immensusque ruit profundo
Pindarus ore.

OCCASIONAL ODE.

First of all created things,
God's eldest born, Oh tell me, Time!
E'er since within that car of thine,
Drawn by those steeds, whose speed divine,
Through ev'ry state and ev'ry clime,
Nor pause nor rest has known;
'Mong'st all the scenes long since gone by,
Since first thou op'd'st thy closeless eye,
Did its scar'd glances ever rest
Upon a vision so unblest,
So fearful as our own?

If thus thou start'st in wild affright
At what thyself hast brought to light,
Oh yet relent! nor still unclose
New volumes vast of human woes.

Thy bright and bounteous brother, yonder Sun,
Whose course coeval still with thine doth run,
Sick'ning at the sights unholy,
Frightful crime, and frantick folly,
By thee, presumptuous! with delight
Forc'd upon his awful sight,
Abandons half his regal right,
And yields the hated world to Night.
And e'en when through the honour'd day
He still benignly deigns to sway,
High o'er th' horizon prints his burnish'd tread,
Oft calls his clouds,
With sable shrouds,
To hide his glorious head!

And Luna, of yet purer view,
His sister and his regent too,
Beneath whose mild and sacred reign
Thou dar'st display thy deeds profane,
Pale and appall'd, has frown'd her fears,
Or veil'd her brightness in her tears.
While all her starry court, attendant near,
Only glance, and disappear.

But Thou, relentless! not in thee
These horrours wake humanity:
Though Sun, and Moon, and Stars combin'd,
Ne'er did it change thy fatal mind,
Nor e'er thy wayward steps retrace,
Nor e'er restrain thy coursers' race,
Nor e'er efface the blood thou'd'st shed,
Nor raise to life the murder'd dead.

Is't not enough, thou spoiler, tell!
That, subject to thy stern behest,
The might of ancient empire fell,
And sunk to drear and endless rest?
Fall'n is the Roman eagle's flight,
The Grecian glory sunk in night;
And prostrate arts and arms no more withstand;
Those own thy Vandal flame, and these thy conq'ring hand.
Then be destruction's sable banner furl'd,
Nor wave its shadows o'er the modern world!

In vain the pray'r. Still opens wide,
Renew'd each former tragick scene
Of Time's dark drama; while beside
Grief and Despair their vigils keep;
And Mem'ry only lives to weep
The mould'ring dust of WHAT HAS BEEN.
How nameless now the once fam'd earth,
That gave to KOSCIUSCO birth,
The pillar'd realm that proudly stood,
Propp'd by his worth, cemented by his blood.

As towers the Lion of the wood
O'er all surrounding living things,
So, 'mid the herd of vulgar kings,
The dauntless DALECARLIAN stood.
"Pillow'd by flint, by damps enclos'd,"
Upon the mine's cold lap repos'd,
Yet firm he follow'd freedom's plan;
"Dar'd with eternal Night reside,
"And threw Inclemency aside,"
Conq'rour of Nature as of Man!
And earn'd by toils unknown before,
Of blood and death, the crown he wore.
That radiant crown, whose flood of light
Illumin'd once a nation's sight,
Spirit of Vasa! this its doom?
Gleams in a dungeon's living tomb!

Where'er the frighten'd mind can fly,
But nearer ruins meet her eye.
Ah! not Arcadia's pictur'd scene
Could more the poet's dream engage,
Nor manner's more befitting seem
The vision of a golden age,
Than where the chamois lov'd to roam
Through old Helvetia's rugged home;
Where Uri's echoes lov'd to swell
To kindred rocks the name of Tell:
And past'ral girls and rustic swains,
Were simple as their native plains.
Nor mild alone, but bold, the mind,
The soldier and the shepherd join'd;
The Roman heraldry restor'd;
The crook was quarter'd with the sword.
Their seed-time cheerful labour stor'd;
Plenty pil'd their vintage board;
Peace lov'd their daily fold to keep;
Contentment tranquilliz'd their sleep;
Till through those *giant guards of stone*,*
Where Freedom fix'd her "mountain-throne,"
Battle's blood-hounds forc'd their way
And made the *Human Flock* their prey!

Is it Fact, or Fancy tells,
That now another mandate's gone?
Hark, e'en now those fated wheels
Roll the rapid ruin on!
Lo, where the generous and the good,
The heart to feel, the hand to dare;
Iberia pours her noblest blood,
Iberia lifts her holiest prayer!
The while from all her rocks and vales
Her peasant-bands by thousands rise;

* The Alps.

Their altar is their native plains,
Themselves, the willing sacrifice.
While HE, the "strangest birth of time,"
Red with gore, and grim with crime,
Whose fate more prodigies attend,
And in whose course more terrours blend,
And o'er whose birth more portents lower,
Than ever crown'd,
In lore renown'd,
The Macedonian's natal hour!
Now here, now there, he takes his stand,
The 'stablish'd earth his footsteps jar;
Goads to the fight his vassal-band,
While ebbs or flows, at his command,
The torrent of the war!

Could the bard, whose powers sublime
Scal'd the heights of epick glory,
And render'd in immortal rhyme
Of Rome's disgrace the blushing story;
Where, form'd of treason and of woes,
Pharsalia's gory Genius rose;
Might he again
Renew the strain,
That once his truant Muse had charm'd,
Each foreign tone
Unwak'd had lain;
And patriot Spain,
And Spain alone
The Spaniard's patriot heart had warm'd!

Then had the chords proclaim'd no more
His deeds, *his* death renown'd of yore;
*Who, when each ling'ring hope was slain,
And Freedom fought with Fate in vain,
Lone in the city, 'reft of all,
While Usurpation storm'd the wall,
The tyrant's entrance scorn'd to see,
But died with dying Liberty.

Those chords had rais'd the local strain;
That Bard a filial flight had ta'en;
Forgot all else; the ancient past,
Thick in oblivion's mists o'ercast,
Or past and present both combin'd
Within the graspings of his mind;
In what now is, view'd what hath been;
The dead, within the living seen:
Own'd transmigration's strange control,
In Spaniards own'd the *Cato-soul;*
And wail'd in tones of martial grief,
The valiant band and hero-chief,

* The younger Cato.

Who shar'd in Saragossa's doom,
And made *their Utica*, their tomb.
Bright be the am'ranth of their fame!
May Palafox a Lucan claim!

That Bard no more had fill'd his rhymes,
With Caesar's greatness, Caesar's crimes;
Another Caesar wak'd the string,
Alike usurper, traitor, king.
Another Caesar? rashly said!
Forgive the falsehood, mighty shade!
'Mong'st Julius' treasons, still we know
The faithful friend, the gen'rous foe;
And even *enmity could see
Some virtues of humanity.

But thou! by what accursed name
Shall we denote thy features here?
In records of infernal Fame
Where shall we find thy black compeer?
Thou, whose perfidious might of mind
Nor Pity moves, nor faith can bind;
Whose friends, whose followers vainly crave
That trust which should reward the brave;
Whose foes, 'mid tenfold War's alarms,
Dread more thy treachery than thine arms.
The Ishmaelite, 'mid deserts bred,
Who robs at last whom first he fed,
The midnight murd'rer of the guest
With whom he shar'd the morning's feast,
This Arab wretch, compar'd with thee,
Is honour and humanity!

And shall that proud, that ancient land,
In treasure rich, in pageant grand,
Land of romance, where sprang of old
Adventures strange, and champions bold,
Of holy faith, and gallant fight,
And banner'd hall, and armour'd knight,
And tournament, and minstrelsy,
The NATIVE LAND OF CHIVALRY!
Shall all these "blushing honours" bloom
For Corsica's detested son?
These ancient worthies own his sway,
The upstart fiend of yesterday?
Oh, for the kingly sword and shield
That once the victor monarch sped,
What time from Pavia's trophied field
The royal Frank was captive led!
May Charles's laurels, gain'd for you,
Ne'er, Spaniards, on your brows expire;

* Addis. Cato.
..... "His enemies confess
The virtues of humanity are Caesar's."

Nor the degenerate sons subdue
The conq'rors of their nobler sire.

None higher 'mid the zodiack-line
Of sovereigns and of saints you claim,
Than fair Castilia's star could shine,
And brighten down the sky of fame.
Wise, magnanimous, refin'd,
Accomplish'd friend of human-kind,
Who first the Genoese sail unfurl'd,
The mighty mother of an infant world,
Illustrious Isabel! Shall thine,
Thy children, kneel at Gallia's shrine?
No: rise, thou venerated shade,
In heaven's own armour bright array'd,
Like Pallas to her Grecian band;
Nerve every heart and every hand;
Pervious or not to mortal sight,
Still guard thy gallant offspring's right,
Display thine Ægis from afar,
And lend a thunderbolt to war!

God of battles! from thy throne,
God of vengeance, aid their cause:
Make it, conq'ring one, thine own!
'Tis faith, and liberty, and laws.
'Tis for these they pour their blood;
The cause of man.....the cause of God!
Not now avenge, all-righteous power,
Peruvia's red and ruin'd hour:
Nor mangled Montezuma's head;
Nor Guatamozin's burning bed;
Nor give the guiltless up to fate,
For Cortes' crimes, Pizarro's hate!
Thou, who behold'st, enthron'd afar,
Beyond the vision of the keenest star,
Far thro' creation's ample round,
The universe's utmost bound;
Where war in other shape appears,
The destin'd plague of other spheres;
Other Napoleons arise
To stain the earth and cloud the skies;
And other realms in martial ranks succeed,
Fight like Iberians, like Iberians bleed!
If an end is e'er design'd
The dire destroyers of mankind;
O be some seraphim assign'd,
To breathe it to the patriot mind!
What Brutus, bright in arms array'd,
What Cordè bares the righteous blade:
Or if the vengeance, not our own,
Be sacred to *thy* arm alone;

When shall be sign'd the blest release
And wearied worlds refresh'd with peace?
O could the muse but dare to rise
Far o'er these low and clouded skies,
Above the threefold heaven to soar
And in thy very sight implore!
In vain....While angels veil them there,
While faith half fears to lift her prayer,
The glance profane *shall fancy* dare?
Yet there around, a fearful band,
Thy ministers of vengeance stand.
Lo, at thy bidding stalks the storm;
The lightning takes a local form;
The floods erect their hydra head;
The pestilence forsakes his bed;
Intolerable light appears to wait;
And far-off darkness stands in awful state!

For thee, oh Time!
If still thou speed'st thy march of crime,
'Gainst all that's beauteous or sublime;
Still prov'st thyself the sworn ally,
And author of mortality;
Infuriate earth, too long supine,
Whilst demon-like thou lov'dst to ride,
Ending every work beside,
Shall live to see the end of thine,
Her great revenge shall see!
By prayer shall move th' Almighty power
To antedate that final hour,
When the archangel firm shall stand,
Upon the ocean and the land;
His crown, a radiant rainbow sphere,
His echoes seven-fold thunders near,
The last dread fiat shall proclaim:
Shall swear by *His* tremendous name,
Who form'd the earth, the heavens, and sea,
TIME *shall no longer be!*

June 30

THE BOSTON REVIEW,

FOR

SEPTEMBER, 1809.

Librum tuum legi, et quam diligentissime potui annotavi, quae commutanda, quae eximenda, arbitrarer. Nam ego dicere verum assuevi. Neque ulli patientius reprehenduntur, quam qui maxime laudari merentur. PLIN.

ART. 9.

Report of the committee appointed by the general assembly of the state of Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations, at the February session, A. D. 1809, *to inquire into the situation of the Farmers' Exchange Bank, in Gloucester, with the documents accompanying the same. Published by order of the general assembly, March sessions,* 1809.

THE improvements of machinery in the arts, since the days when the nymphs of antiquity spun with a distaff, can only be surpassed by the modern system of exchange, compared with those times, when the skin and the flesh of an animal were given for each other, and both were bartered for the gifts of Ceres or Bacchus, as the rude wants of mankind demanded. The introduction of stamped bits of gold and silver was a noble improvement, and satisfied nations for a long period of time. But the love of money is a passion *that grows by what it feeds on;* and it became necessary to multiply, artificially, the pecuniary wealth of mankind, till a system of finance has been gradually matured into so vast a scheme, that much study is requisite to its comprehension, and converted into such a labyrinth, that none but the initiated dare to enter it. The business of banking has at last in this, as in another country, *come home to men's business and bosoms;* and it now behoves every one to attempt at least to gain some knowledge of the metaphysical, as well as the solid qualities of money.

The prodigious increase of commerce in Great Britain, consequent to the disasters of other nations, occasioned by the wars of the French revolution, brought into operation a great number of country banks, the establishment of which was encourag-

ed by Mr. Pitt. The same cause has produced a similar effect here, at a later period. Though founded on less real capital, the failures among our banks have been fewer, than among those of England; which is not owing to their having been better conducted, but to our unlimited confidence in paper money, and, till within these two years, a more steadily progressive prosperity. The distressed state into which the country was recently thrown, joined to the enormous abuses of some corporations, has rather tardily brought on a scene of confusion and distrust, that involves many of the innocent with the guilty. It will however produce eventual good, by confining the circulation of bills within their own district, and preventing for the future a corporation two hundred miles distant, with a fund of an hundred thousand dollars, from issuing bills to twice that amount, and fairly displacing in their own immediate market the bills of the banks in the metropolis, which are unable to circulate more than a tenth or a fifteenth of their capital.

The Farmers' Exchange Bank in Rhode Island, whose extensive impositions and failure first checked and turned the currents of bank bills back on their sources, was incorporated in 1804, to possess a capital of one hundred thousand dollars in two thousand shares. The committee report, that, when the bank commenced its operations, "the capital stock really paid in amounted to only the sum of three thousand and eighty one dollars and eleven cents." After some novel transactions in banking, the stock and the direction of its concerns were acquired by an individual, and we are informed, that "all his schemes and plans, however wild and extravagant, were carried into execution without reserve; that those of the directors who still pretended to superintend the concerns of the bank, took no care whatever to guard the interest of the stockholders, or the publick." The result may be easily imagined, and may be found in the words of the committee: "There is now in said bank eighty-six dollars and forty-eight cents in specie;" and "on the 9th of February, A. D. 1809, there had been emitted by said bank, six hundred and forty thousand eight hundred and forty three dollars of their bills, according to their books. That, owing to the extreme confusion in which their mode of keeping their accounts has involved all their transactions, it is impossible to ascertain with precision the amount of their bills now in circulation, but, from the inquiries and the examination made by the committee, they are of opinion, that the bills of said bank now in circulation amount to the enormous sum of five hundred and eighty thousand dollars."

The depositions and correspondence, annexed to the report, are curious documents; and shew the rude nature of the machinery and the bungling manner in which it was managed behind the curtain. Surely, after reading these, if the publick will continue to believe that every bit of printed paper, indiscriminately, is as valuable, as it pretends to be, merely because the words

bank and *dollars*, are printed on it, they would easily have believed what lord Peter required of his companions, that *a brown loaf was a shoulder of Leadenhall mutton.* The bills were at last signed fifty thousand at a time, and requested to be got ready at a stated *hour;* they were transmitted from the bank to Boston, packed up in boxes; and it is of a piece with the rest of the transactions, that in different instances the person who opens them in Boston finds a less amount than is forwarded by the cashier. This latter seems to have been a conscientious dupe, who occasionally made wry faces, but who, when he is harassed and sick, is gravely told, "that his natural piety of mind and regular habits will do more towards his recovery than any medical advice."

Our object in noticing this pamphlet was not so much the purpose of analyzing its disgusting details, as to offer a few remarks on a subject, which has carried distress and embarrassment, in a greater or less degree, into every dwelling in the commonwealth. We shall first make a few statements of the capital, specie, and circulating notes of the banks, at different periods, derived from the returns made to the secretary's office, and published semi-annually by order of the legislature; premising that as we have but few of the returns by us at the moment, we cannot make all the comparative statements that are necessary to an intimate knowledge of the subject. They will still be sufficient to furnish matter for some reflection. In doing this we shall drop all denominations below *thousands*, and abandon the hundreds, tens and units, as the Spaniards do the *Cahidas* of their fleeces, for the benefit of souls in purgatory, a state which, even in this protestant country, most men have a pretty good earnest of, while they are uncertain whether their notes have been discounted or renewed.

In 1804, the capital stock of our sixteen banks was five millions, four hundred and eighty three thousand dollars; their notes in circulation, three millions, one hundred and three thousand dollars; their specie, one million, five hundred and fifty nine thousand dollars, including seventy four thousand dollars in bills belonging to banks out of the state. Of the notes in circulation, one million, one hundred and ninety four thousand dollars were issued by the banks in the capital; and of the specie six hundred and six thousand dollars were in their possession; and their capital amounted to three millions, four hundred thousand dollars.

In 1809, the capital stock of twenty three banks, to which number they had increased, amounted to seven millions, four hundred and ten thousand dollars; their specie in June, 1808, one million, eight hundred and fifty five thousand dollars, including one hundred and forty five thousand dollars in notes of banks out of the state; their bills in circulation, one million, eight hundred and sixty five thousand dollars. The capital stock of the banks in Boston was three millions, eight hundred thousand dollars; their notes in circulation, three hundred and seven-

ty one thousand dollars; and their specie, including thirty three thousand dollars in notes belonging to banks out of the state, was eight hundred and sixty thousand dollars. In January 1809, the notes in circulation amounted to one million, four hundred and forty thousand dollars; the specie, including one hundred and ninety seven thousand dollars of notes belonging to banks out of the state, was one million, one hundred and eighty nine thousand dollars; being six hundred and sixty six thousand dollars less than it was six months before. At this period the notes in circulation of banks in the capital were equal to three hundred and ninety five thousand dollars; their specie, including thirty thousand in bills from other state banks, was equal to three hundred and thirty nine thousand dollars. We shall remark that the branch bank of the United States renders no account, but from being the place of national deposite possesses much greater power, and a commanding influence over the other banks. We are too ignorant of its situation to venture any estimate of its cash account, but the average deposite of specie is so much larger than in the other banks, that, if it was brought into view, it would greatly diminish the apparent disproportion which exists between capital stock of the banks and the specie in the state.

From these data it will be seen, that, when the aggregate of bank capital was five millions, four hundred and eighty three thousand dollars, the notes in circulation were equal to more than half this capital; that the specie amounted to more than half the amount of their bills; that the banks in Boston, possessing about three fifths of the bank capital, issued rather more than one third of the whole amount of notes, and possessed nearly two fifths of the specie.

When the capital of bank stock was increased to seven millions, four hundred and ten thousand dollars, at the latest return in January 1809, and the most unfavourable one for them, the notes in circulation amounted to about one sixth of the capital, and the specie to rather more than one seventh. At the same time the notes circulated by the Boston banks amounted to less than one tenth, and the specie they possessed to one eleventh of their capital.

It appears, that, in 1809, when the bank capital had been increased to seven millions, four hundred and ten thousand dollars, the notes in circulation were less by one million, six hundred and sixty three thousand dollars, and the specie less by three hundred and seventy thousand dollars; and that in five years, when the bank capital had been increased two fifths, the paper and metallick medium of circulation had been diminished two millions and thirty three thousand dollars! This decrease would have been still greater, if the distant country banks had not profligately forced into the market as many of their bills as possible. The conclusions are obvious.

From an examination of the returns it appears further, that the banks in the metropolis and the county of Essex, and two

or three others only, loan either less than their capital, or a sum exceeding it only by one fourth; while one of the Nantucket banks loaned more than double its capital, and the other, and the Lincoln and Kennebeck, the Hallowell and Augusta, and the Penobscot banks nearly double the amount of their capitals. The deposites in the Boston and Essex banks amount to one third, one half, and sometimes nearly equal their capital; the deposites in some of the country banks atthe same period amounting to only a two hundredth part of their capital. The banks in Boston and Essex declare a semi-annual dividend of from three to four per cent. while the Nantucket banks and some others divide from five to five and an half per cent.

The limits of our work will not permit us to investigate minutely this intricate subject, but we shall add a few plain, general observations. It will be felt ere long, if it be not already, that to carry on the banking business, securely, honourably and profitably, something more is necessary, than merely copying from the statute book a form of incorporation, filling up the blanks at discretion, obtaining a little specie to cheat the law and begin with decency, signing bills and loaning money.

The introduction of banks is one of the most brilliant and powerful improvements of modern finance; and from the bank of Venice, established about the middle of the twelfth century, and which furnished the groundwork for all the others, every commercial nation has resorted to their agency. The bank of Amsterdam was long the wonder of Europe; but it has been eclipsed by the bank of England, a company of vastly more consequence and utility to the government, than the East India Company, and whose assistance indeed, in the present complicated system of their finances, they could not possibly forego.

Under different forms, the great publick banks, in actively commercial countries in Europe, are founded on the principle of a discretionary power in emitting specie. Even Great Britain, with her astonishing resources, was obliged to adopt the same system, and, to relieve the nation from anxiety under a perpetual menace of ruin, to order a suspension of payments in specie at the bank. By this bold and wise measure security was at once given to the currency of the kingdom, and the paper of the bank formed a medium as valuable as gold, to support the operations of the private bankers. Without this measure, a sudden panick or groundless alarm would have produced immediate ruin. If the bank, as it has been observed, "in such a period issued only one million of one pound notes, they would be sufficient to drain it, in one month, of fifty millions sterling." This, if it was, considering the opinions of men, one of the boldest acts of Mr. Pitt's ministry, was certainly one of the wisest and most indispensable.

The banking system among us must, to insure stability, proceed on other principles, than those by which it has hitherto been conducted. The bank of the United States and the Mas-

sachusetts bank are beyond the control of the legislature ; but all the other establishments will fall in within the period of a few years. With a view to that period let a system be prepared, that shall be an object of state patronage. Let a capital, which the wants of commerce fairly demand, be established in the metropolis, with branches in four or five principal commercial towns. That this may not be invidious, the number of shares to be taken by original subscribers may be restricted, and the state, by deriving an annual income, or a *bonus* for the charter, should reduce its dividends to such a point, that the gentry, who have been dividing 5 per cent. semiannually, will not hanker for any concern in it. The property of corporate bodies and annuitants will always prefer such a stock. The charters of all other banks should only be granted on the condition, that all the stockholders, or at least the President and Directors, should be liable in their individual capacity, to the amount of their whole property, for the redemption of their bills. These they should be held to pay at sight, in specie or in bills of the State bank. Nor can this last regulation be esteemed unequal, or unnecessary. The State bank should have a capital decidedly within the real demands of the country ; its dividends should be so reduced, as to be principally coveted by corporate bodies, annuitants, or great capitalists ; while its regulated emission would afford a stable medium to facilitate the operations of smaller banks. The objection, that the bills of a bank, not obliged to pay specie, would be only a paper money, and without credit, is evidently unfounded ; since its payments or non payments of specie, according to the quantity existing in the market, would result from a useful and salutary discretion for the publick ; and being limited much within the real wants of the community and enjoying the protection of government, its bills would serve to prevent dangerous and violent vibrations in the specie market. By an institution of this kind, but, we repeat it, confined within moderate bounds, the security of the circulating medium would be greatly assured, and could only be shaken by an almost impossible event, a state bankruptcy. Without a system on these principles, every commercial community is subject to the most violent and sudden convulsions, particularly during a state of war, whenever fraud, folly, or rivalship, aided by circumstances, can create a jealousy, or spread a panick.

The great difference, and a vital one it is, between the country banks here and in England, is, that there the individuals are capitalists, who lend money and circulate notes no faster than they are able to redeem them, as the moment they get to the metropolis, they are sent back for payment. No complaints are made on this account, much less an indictment by a jury of the individual presenting them, as a public nuisance ; as happened not long since in the dominions of our sister Vermont, an occurrence, by the way, for profligate impudence, or gross simplicity, fairly unequalled. But here, the bankers themselves,

having placed a trifling stake in the institution, issue notes not in proportion to their capital, but to the utmost stretch of publick credulity, and then borrow money themselves; and the only difficulty that arises is in apportioning the shares of plunder. If the bank fails, they lose the amount of their shares!

There is another evil, which under the present system takes place, and is a serious imposition on the publick, we allude to the circulation of bills under five dollars. By the last return, these amounted to 69,000 dollars, in bills of this state, and till lately, there was a very considerable addition in bills from other states. Many of these must be destroyed, and the publick of course defrauded; banks were never instituted to exchange their notes for a turkey, or a quarter of mutton. There are two remedies for this, within the resort of the national government. The first is, to coin only parts of dollars, as these are not sent out of the country. The standard of our silver being fine, our dollars are eagerly caught up in times of difficulty for exportation to Europe, and in ordinary times the China trade is a constant drain. There is another expedient, which even Great Britain with all her wealth was obliged to adopt, which is extremely simple, and may be readily discontinued, whenever the necessity for it ceases. This is the issuing of *metallick bank bills.* To supply the deficiency of her silver currency, she stamped Spanish dollars, with the king's head on one side, and the words Bank of England on the other. They were bought up at four shillings and four pence to four shillings and six pence sterling, and issued at five shillings, at which they were received as part of the currency of the kingdom by the government and the bank; the latter accounted to the former for the profit, and at a future convenient moment they will be redeemed. This scheme also avoids the fatal consequences of debasing the coin, and serves every purpose, as the increased nominal value prevents their being melted down, or exported. We think the issuing two or three millions of Spanish dollars in this way, at the bank of the United States, under the pledge and sanction of the government, would afford them a loan without interest, and add greatly to the publick convenience and gain by the expulsion of small bills.

Perhaps it would be a useful regulation under any new system of banking, to allow the directors a fair compensation, and to prevent them from obtaining any loans, or restrict them to the amount of their capital stock. Some clamour has been caused, whether justly we do not know, by the assertion, that some directors, who are not actively engaged in commerce, are large debtors to the banks, whose capacity in the discounting of notes is thus narrowed; and that individuals presenting notes for discount, are sometimes obliged to make sacrifices to raise money, which they obtain at extravagant premiums through the means of brokers from these same directors. We have been assured from the best authority, that practices still more censurable have been known in some parts of the country; that a

usury so grinding and enormous has been exercised, as would make even the tenants of *Change Alley* recoil and talk of their conscience.

We know this subject of usury is a delicate one, and from the number who practise it, with capitals of one thousand or one million of dollars, we might perhaps say it is a popular one. A practice that has been always denounced and proscribed in all laws human and divine must be an infamous one. It has, in every country but this, been confined to the outcasts of society. It has here been ripened into a disease that has gangrened the whole course of money transactions. Its advocates contend for leaving money to have its price like merchandise. This would be like a man's making use of his house, as well as his fuel, to light his fires, and a parallel to the conduct of a certain philosopher, who, in order to preserve his essential resources, made those resources his weapons of warfare, and when his head was attacked, thrust his hands into his pockets, and defended the noblest part with the part itself, finding a precedent in the *economies* of nature, in the wise practices of bulls and rams. No, usury should even less be suffered than publick brothels or gaming houses. We think however, that the rising indignation of the publick, and the increasing contempt of upright merchants and liberal men will eradicate the evil; and cowardice will operate on those, who are beyond the reach of all other feeling.

The vulgar have been clamorous against the money changers, and to suppose that they have not profited, some of them at least, unfairly, in the disgraceful scenes which have taken place, would be a great stretch of charity. But they are only excrescences generated on the surface by the disordered state of our banking system, which will drop off and perish of course, whenever health is restored by a moderate and free circulation. The liberality, or, more correctly, the rapacity of the traders and shopkeepers of Boston, by receiving and circulating every ragged bit of paper that was offered to them, has given a full trial to the system; and the ignorant or unprincipled directors of certain banks have lent money, issued notes, and divided ten per cent. but they have in their avidity, killed the hen that laid the golden eggs.

One other remark we had almost forgot. The banks should, in all cases, be held to pay the bills presented to them, purporting to be theirs, whether forged or not; because it is only justice that the people should not suffer from frauds, which would not exist but by their institutions, and as they derive a profit from a license to issue their paper, they ought to prevent the publick from experiencing any loss. Policy as well as justice requires this regulation. The business of police is fortunately incompatable with the nature of our government, and is always clumsily and ineffectually managed; individuals succeed better, and do not endanger constitutional principles. If the banks had been obliged to pay all forged bills, and the duty of detecting forgers

made their immediate interest, we venture to say, that there would not be one existing without the walls of the state prison. If a man presents a forged bill at the bank in England, no matter what his appearance may be, the clerks say nothing, but delay him for a few moments between one and the other, till a police officer is brought to take possession of him. A reference to any respectable person, and an account of the manner of his receiving the bill, whose value is paid to him if he came by it honestly, forms the only trouble he encounters. The bank afterwards traces the affair, and generally nips felony in the bud. A provision of this kind is not only due to the security of the publick, but would ultimately promote the interest of the banks.

ART. 10.

THE NAVIGATOR: containing directions for navigating the Monongahela, Alleghany, Ohio, and Mississippi rivers, &c. with an account of Louisiana, and of the Missouri and Columbia rivers. Cramer & Spear, Pittsburg, 1808, 12mo. Ed. 6. 156 pages.

"INEST SUA GRATIA PARVIS." This little book, though designed only for "the use of those who navigate or trade on the Western waters," contains a great variety of original and authentick information, which cannot fail to render it very acceptable and interesting to all who wish to become acquainted with the geography of our country. The repute in which it is held by those who are best able to ascertain its correctness and importance, is evinced by its having gone through six editions since the year 1801. Besides a particular description of the noble RIVERS which flow through the extensive regions beyond the Allegheny mountains, from their sources to their discharge at New Orleans, the writer has given a circumstantial account of all the TOWNS and SETTLEMENTS in their vicinity; and interspersed occasional remarks upon the ANTIQUITIES discovered in the wilds, "the vestiges of a people of whom time has left no other memorial." The volume is also enriched with thirteen maps, engraved on wood, of the size of the page, very accurately delineated: "those of the Ohio taken from actual survey; and those of the Mississippi, partly from surveys, and partly from private charts."

Would our limits permit, we should be gratified with making large extracts, but must content ourselves with only a few as specimens of the work.

"The trade carried on between the lakes and the Ohio, by way of the Allegheny and its branches, is at this time very considerable, and must in a few years become of great importance. There are about 4000 or 5000 barrels, and sometimes more, of Onondago salt brought down to Pittsburgh annually, worth per barrel 9 dollars, making an average of about 40,000 dollars worth of traffick in this one article. Exclusive of the article salt, there are an immense number of boards, shingles, and lumber of different kinds,

floated down to Pittsburgh and the country below on the Ohio. The quantity of boards and lumber that arrive yearly at Pittsburgh from the Allegheny, is supposed to be about 3,000,000 feet, averaging about 9 dollars per 1000 feet, amounting to 27,000 dollars; this added to the amount of the salt, makes the handsome sum in domestick trade of 67,000 dollars.

In return the keel boats ascend loaded with whiskey, iron and castings, cider, apples, bacon, and many other articles of home production—and merchandize of foreign importation.—As long as the water keeps good, that is, neither too high nor too low, boats are ascending and descending continually, making a trip up in about 17 days, and down in 5 days."

"PITTSBURGH, is delightfully situated at the head of the Ohio river, on the plain or point of land formed by the junction of the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers; the former running from the Northeast, and the latter from the Southwest, making an angle where they unite of about 33 degrees. On the point stood the old French garrison known by the name of Fort Du Quesne, which was evacuated and blown up by the French in the campaign of the British under general Forbes in 1758. The appearance of the ditch and mound, with its salient angles and bastions are still to be seen."

"Fort Pitt, being included in one of the manors of the Penn family, was sold by the proprietaries, and now makes a part of the town of Pittsburgh, though its banks and ditches form a considerable obstruction to its being regularly built on, and very much spoil the beauty of the view from the head of Liberty and Penn streets to the Monongahela river."

"Fort Fayette, the present garrison, built in the year 1792, is also within the borough, and stands on the Allegheny river. It answers as a place of deposit, and for the convenience of stationing soldiers destined down the Ohio, and Mississippi; as a place of defence it is useless."

"In the year 1760, a small town, called Pittsburgh, was built near Fort Pitt, and about 200 families resided in it; but upon the Indian war breaking out in May 1763, they abandoned their houses and retired into the Fort."

"The bottom or plain on which Pittsburgh stands, would seem, from circumstances to have been *made ground*, and the Allegheny river to have once washed the base of Grant's hill; but through time and accident, found its way by small progressions, from that hill to its present bed. There are two rises, or what are called *first* and *second banks*, running parallel with that river, which would seem to have once formed its Eastern margin. These elevations make beautiful situations for either gardens or buildings.—In digging wells in the town, the various kinds of sand and gravel are found as appear on the beaches and in the beds of the rivers; pieces of wood and strata of dirt and leaves are also frequently discovered eight or ten feet below the surface. The Allegheny is now working itself back again. It has washed away about 50 or 60 feet of ground on its eastern bank within 30 years."

"This plain which is of a rich sandy loam, is about half a mile in width from the Allegheny to the point of Grant's hill, its widest part; thence up that river it gets narrower, until about four miles, where the hill closes to the river bank. But the town may extend as far as the Two Mile run; the bottom that distance is spacious, and well calculated for building on. It is now enclosed in orchards, meadows and grain fields, and produces fine crops of each."

"The present town of Pittsburgh was first laid out in the year 1765; it was afterwards laid and surveyed in May, 1784, by Col. George Woods, by order of Tench Francis, Esq. Attorney for John Penn, Jun. and John Penn. The beauty and very commanding situation of the place has increased its buildings, population and business, beyond all calculations. It now contains about 500 dwellings, the greater number perhaps wood, some stone, and many elegantly built with brick, two and three stories high. The publick buildings, are: A large and spacious court house handsomely built with

brick ; a large brick market house ; these are placed in the publick square having market street running between them : a stone jail; a bank, established here January 1, 1804, being a branch of the Pennsylvania bank, also of stone ; a large stone house on the bank of the Monongahela, four stories high, built by the Evans's of Philadelphia, for a steam grist and paper mill, not yet in motion ; a handsome octagon Episcopal church ; a handsome and spacious Presbyterian church ; a Covenanter's, German Lutheran, and a Roman Catholick church, and an academy, all of brick ; a large and convenient frame ware-house, for the storage of goods at the end of Wood street, on the bank of the Monongahela, built and owned by Mr. Thomas Cromwell."

" Pittsburgh is the seat of justice for Allegheny co. Pa. and has, with justice, been emphatically called the key to the Western Country. It is 300 miles W. by N. of Philadelphia, 252 from Washington city, about 335 from Lexington, K and about 1100 from New Orleans by land, though 2000 by water. It is in lat. 40° 35′ N. long 80° 38′ W. being about five degrees Westward of Philadelphia."

" Marietta, is finely situated at the mouth of Muskingum, having about 90 houses on the upper and 30 on the opposite bank, where Fort Harmar formerly stood. A bank was established here in the summer of 1807, capital 100,000 dollars, of which Rufus Putnam is President. Ship building is carried on here with spirit.—It has one printing office, a post office, 2 rope walks, a court and market house, and an academy. The inhabitants are principally New Englanders, whose industry is as proverbial as their system of life is economical, moral and religious. About a mile above Marietta and on the bank of the Muskingum are some curious remains of Indian fortifications. Marietta is the seat of justice for Washington county, Ohio, Lat. 39° 34′ N. Long. 82° 9′ W.—About 146 miles southwest of Pittsburgh by land."

" Blannerhasset's Island.—'On ascending the bank from the landing, (a quarter of a mile below the eastern end,) we entered at a handsome double gate, with hewn stone square pilasters, a gravel walk, which led us about 150 paces to the house, with a meadow on the left, and a shrubbery on the right, separated by a low hedge of privy-sally, through which innumerable columbines and various other hardy flowers were displaying themselves to the sun. The house is built of wood, and occupies a square of about 54 feet each side, is two stories high, and in just proportion ; it is connected with two wings, by a semicircular portico or corridor running from each front corner. The shrubbery well stocked with flowering shrubs, and all the variety of evergreens natural to this climate, as well as several exotics, surrounds the garden, and has gravel walks labyrinth fashion winding through it. The garden is not large, but seems to have had every delicacy of fruit, vegetable and flower, which this fine climate and luxurious soil produces. In short Blannerhasset's Island is a most charming retreat for any man of fortune fond of retirement, and it is a situation perhaps not exceeded for beauty in the world. It wants however the variety of mountain—precipice—cataract—distant prospect, &c. which constitute the grand and sublime.'

Tour from Philadelphia, &c.
An original work preparing for press."

From the same unpublished Tour is the following description of Chilicothe, the capital of the State of Ohio.

" Chilicothe, which signifies *town* in the Indian dialect, is most beautifully situated on the banks of the Scioto, about forty five miles by land, and nearly seventy following the meanders of the river from its confluence with the Ohio, which it joins between Portsmouth and Alexandria.—In all that distance, the river has a gentle current, and unimpeded navigation for large keels and other craft of four feet draught of water.—It continues navigable

for smaller boats and batteaux upwards of one hundred miles above the town towards its source to the Northward, gliding gently through a naturally rich, level, and rapidly improving country. The situation of the town is on an elevated and extensive plain of nearly ten thousand acres of as fine a soil as any in America, partly in cultivation, and partly covered with its native forests. This plain is nearly surrounded by the Scioto, which turning suddenly to the N. E, from its general Southerly course, leaves the town to the Southward of it, and then forms a great bend to the Eastward and Southward."

"Water street, which runs about E. by N. parallel to the Scioto, is half a mile long and contains ninety houses—it is eighty four feet wide and would be a fine street, had not the river floods caved in the bank in one place near the middle almost into the centre of it. There is now a lottery on foot to raise money for securing the bank against any further encroachments of the river. Main street parallel to Water street, is one hundred feet wide, as is Market street, which crosses both at right angles, and in which is the Market house, a neat brick building eighty feet long.—The Court house in the same street, is neatly built of free stone on an area of forty five by forty two feet, with a semicircular projection in the rear, in which is the bench for the judges. It has an octagonal belfry rising from the roof, painted white with green lattices, which is an ornament to the town, as is the small plain belfry of the Presbyterian Meeting house, a handsome brick building in Main street; in which street also is a small brick Methodist Meeting house. These are the only places of publick worship in the town, if I except the Court house, which is used occasionally by the Episcopalians and other Sects."

"The whole number of dwelling houses as I counted them in Chilicothe is two hundred and two, besides four brick, and a few framed ones now building. I reckoned only six taverns with signs, which small proportion of houses of that description speaks volumes in favour of the place. There are fourteen stores, a Post office, and two printing offices, which each issues a gazette weekly."

"The scite of the town being on a gravelly soil, the streets are generally clean.—The houses are of free stone, brick, or timber clapboarded, the first of which is got in the neighbourhood, is of a whitish brown colour, and excellent for building.—They are mostly very good, and are well painted. On the whole, I think Chilicothe is not exceeded in beauty of plan, situation, or appearance by any town I have seen in the western part of the United States."

"There is here a remarkable Indian monument in Mr. Watchup's garden in the very heart of the town. Like that at Grave creek, it is round at the base, about seventy or eighty feet diameter, but differs from it, by being round instead of flat on the top, which has an elevation of about thirty feet perpendicular from the level of the plain. It is formed of clay, and though it has been perforated by the proprietor nothing has been found to justify the common opinion of these mounts having been barrows or cemeteries.—They talk of having it levelled, as it projects a little into Market Street, but I think it a pity to destroy any of the very few vestiges of aboriginal population which this country presents to the curious and inquisitive traveller."

"From a steep hill about three hundred feet perpendicular height, just outside the Western extremity of the town, is a most charming view, of the streets immediately below, under the eye like a plan on paper: Then the Scioto from one hundred to one hundred and fifty yards wide, winding on the left, with some low hills about two miles beyond it terminating the view to the northeast; while to the eastward and westward, as far as the eye can reach both ways, is spread a country partly flat, and partly rising in gentle swells, which if cultivation proceeds in equal proportion to what it has done since Chilicothe was first laid out about ten years ago, must, in a very short time present one of the finest landscapes imaginable."

Referring to BIG-BONE LICK on the Ohio, it is observed that

"Animals' bones of enormous size have been found here in great numbers. Some skeletons nearly complete were not long since dug up 11 feet under the surface in a stiff blue clay. These appeared to be the bones of different species of animals, but all remarkably large. Some were supposed to be those of the Mammoth, others of a Nondescript. Among these bones, were two horns or fenders, each weighing 150 pounds, 16 feet long, and 18 inches in circumference at the big end; and grinders of the carnivorous kind weighing from 3 to 10 1-2 pound each; and others of the graminivorous species, equally large, but quite differently shaped, being flat and ridged.—Ribs, joints of the backbone, and of the foot or paw, thigh and hip bones, upper jaw-bone, &c. &c. were also found, amounting in the whole to about five tons weight.

These bones were principally discovered by Doctor Goforth and Mr. Reeder of Cincinnati, who sent them by water to Pittsburgh, with an intention to transport them to Philadelphia, and make sale of them to Mr. Peale, proprietor of the Museum of that city. They were however, while in Pittsburgh, discovered by an Irish gentleman, a traveller, who purchased them, reshipped them down the Ohio, and thence to Europe.

In the directions for navigating the Missisippi, with notices of the settlements, is the following description of the CITY OF NATCHEZ:

THE CITY OF NATCHEZ

Occupies a very handsome situation and one that is uncommon on the Mississippi. It is built on a hill nearly perpendicular of about 200 feet in height from the surface of the river. This hill, called the Bluff, affords a fine prospect up and down the river for two or three miles each way. The houses in Natchez are mostly frame, with a great many doors and windows, for the admission of the cool breezes in the hot months; they are low, being generally but one story high, and constructed principally for the convenience of business. The city contains about 300 houses. The Bluff on which the town stands is about 200 yards from the river, and the intermediate space, called the Landing, is covered with a number of dwellings, taverns, dram-shops, and trading houses. The bank being composed of a rich loose sand, the river is constantly making encroachments into this plain or bottom, and will in a few years, most probably, run close to the foot of the Bluff, and entirely annihilate this part of the city.

There is but one road from the Landing up the hill, along which are several Orange and Liquor shops, situated on the brink of the precipice. Though these shops might be undermined by a heavy rain, and precipitated down a steep of 100 feet, yet, such is the temerity of their holders that they do not seem to think of the danger they are in.

In the year 1805, a large portion of the Bluff on the lower border of the town sunk in to a considerable depth; some houses were destroyed, and others moved off with the earth without sustaining any injury.

Here are established several large Mercantile Houses, which are much engaged in the cotton business, and many others less extensive. The city has two printing-offices, issuing weekly gazettes, a number of publick inns, and many of the mechanick branches are carried on.

The staple commodity of this country is cotton, which is raised to great perfection, and with large profits to the Planters, who in fact accumulate immense fortunes to themselves by following it for a few years. Vast quantities of it is exported from Natchez yearly, to the different seaport towns in the United States, and to many of those in Europe; England particularly, whose manufactories of cotton indeed depend very much on the American cotton Planters for their supply of that article.

Indigo, rice, flax, tobacco, hemp, and pease, are cultivated here with great success, and some sugar is made. Black cattle and sheep thrive well. The Natchez country produces Maize or Indian corn, equal if not superiour to any other part of the United States; the time of planting it is from the beginning of March until the beginning of July. The cotton is generally planted in the latter end of February and the beginning of March. Wheat does not succeed well; Rye has been raised in some places with success. Plumbs, peaches, and figs are abundant; apples and cherries are scarce. The same kinds of vegetables raised in the middle states succeed here generally.

The same kind of mounds or tumuli found in different parts of the Western country bordering the Ohio, and indeed throughout the United States, are also discovered in the Natchez settlements. In all parts where new plantations are opened, broken Indian earthen-ware is to be met with; some pieces are in tolerable preservation, and retain distinctly the original ornaments; but none of it appears to have ever been glazed.

Natchez is a port of Entry, and vessels of 300 or 400 tons burden come up the river to the city, meeting with no other difficulty than the strength of the current and head winds. It is in Lat. 31° 33′ N. long 16° 15′ W. and is about 300 miles above New-Orleans. It has a post-office which receives and discharges the Mail regularly once a week. It is said that a line of stages is soon to be established from Lexington to New Orleans for the purpose of carrying the United States mail.

It is observed that the wool of the sheep in the Natchez district is more hairy and less valuable than it is in the middle states; but that the mutton is well tasted. It is also observed that domestick animals generally are less tame and docile, owing perhaps to their being more able to get their living in the woods and swamps throughout the year, than is afforded them in the middle and northern states; and to their feeling less dependent on man for protection and subsistence.

The tract of good upland in the Natchez district is not very extensive, being about 130 miles in length along the Mississippi river, and not more than 23 in breadth. This tract is remarkably fertile, but the country being high, and much broken with hills, a few years washing will render the soil of the cultivated parts less productive.

The making of sugar from the cane does not succeed very well in the neighbourhood of Natchez; but from Point Coupee down to the Gulph of Mexico, it is manufactured to advantage and is the staple commodity of that part of the Mississippi—Sweet and sour lemons grow in great plenty on that part of the river.

The climate of Natchez is very changeable in winter, but the summers are regularly hot, being about 14° of permanent heat beyond that of Pennsylva- and New-Jersey.

The description of the MISSISSIPPI is a valuable article of several pages; as is also the history of the discovery, settlement, and transfer of LOUISIANA, with its geography, population, &c. but for these we must refer to the book, which appears to much greater advantage in its native unadorned simplicity, than in the prostitute frippery with which it has been bedizened by Thomas Ashe, esquire.

RETROSPECTIVE REVIEW.

ART. 3.

An historical account of the Small-Pox inoculated in New-England, &c. &c. by Zabdiel Boylston, F. R. S. *The second edition corrected. London*, 1726. *Reprinted at Boston in* N. E. 1730. pp. 53.

IT may, perhaps, be thought unnecessary, at this period to introduce to our readers a work on the inoculation of the small-pox. The advantages resulting from this practice have been established by the experience of a long series of years, the prejudices against its adoption have gradually disappeared, and the time probably is not far distant, when even the name of small-pox will no longer augment the catalogue of human miseries. Still, however, this pamphlet is interesting, as the production of an American, as an history of what may justly be considered as an epoch in medical science, and as a proof that truths derived from observation and experience will ultimately be acknowledged, though opposed by the clamours of the interested, the fears of the superstitious, and the obstinacy of the ignorant. These obstacles were encountered by Dr. Boylston, his practice was reprobated, and the inhabitants of the same town, which in 1793, voted in favour of a general inoculation, passed a resolve in 1721, that the practice of inoculation was accompanied with extreme danger to the patient, and followed by the most injurious effects on his person and constitution. "I hope the reader," says Dr. Boylston in his preface, "will excuse me for troubling him with some of the difficulties that I met with. I have been basely used and treated by some who were enemies to this method, and have suffered much in my reputation, and in my business too, from the odiums and reflections cast upon me for beginning and carrying on this practice in New-England."

The style of this work is simple, and consists principally of cases of inoculated small-pox, with observations on their progress and termination. The circumstance which first suggested to Dr. B. the possibility of communicating the disease by inoculation, was a paper on the subject, published a short time before in the Philosophical Transactions, and he gives the following history of its introduction into New-England.

"The small-pox, which had been a terrour to New-England, since first it paid a visit there, coming into Boston, and spreading there in April, 1721, put the inhabitants into great consternation and disorder. Dr. Mather, in compassion for the lives of the people, transcribed from the Phil. Trans. of the Royal Society, the accounts sent them by Dr. Timonius and Pyllarinus

of inoculating the small-pox in the Levant and sent them to the practitioners in town, for their consideration thereon. Upon reading of which I was very well pleased and resolved in my mind to try the experiment; well remembering the destruction the small-pox made nineteen years before, when last in Boston; and how narrowly I then escaped with my life. Now, when my wife and many others were gone out of town to avoid the distemper, and all hope given up of preventing the further spreading of it, and the guards were first removed from the doors of infected houses, I began the experiment; and not being able to make it on myself (such was my faith in the safety and success of this method) I chose to make it (for example sake) upon my own dear child and two of my servants."

The experiment was made, and though the result of it confirmed the belief of Dr. Boylston in the superiority of inoculated small-pox, "yet as the practice was new," says he, "and the clamour or rather rage of the people against it so violent, that I was put into a very great fright."

Notwithstanding, however, the success of his practice and the liberality with which it was conducted, particularly in the selection of his patients from his own family, the dangerous innovation, as it was denominated, produced a violent opposition in the whole "Esculapian tribe."

"They cavilled and said that Dr. Mather had not given a fair representation from Timonius and Pyllarinus's accounts. I prayed that they might be read; but Dr. Douglas, who owned them and had taken them from Dr. Mather, refused to have them read, or even afterwards to lend them to the governour to read."

"And upon July 21st. 1721, being a third time called to an account for using this practice.....I then gave a publick invitation to the practitioners of the town to visit my patients, who were under that practice, and to judge of and report their circumstances as they found them.....Instead of this and reporting their circumstances justly and fairly as it was their duty and the people's right, some of them made it their business to invent, collect, and publish idle, unjust, and ridiculous stories and misrepresentations of the people's circumstances under it and the practice."....

"These were some of the difficulties and oppositions I met with in the beginning of this practice."

The subsequent pages of this little work are almost entirely occupied in detailing the cases with which he was intrusted. Notwithstanding the opposition from the "Faculty," the obvious difference in the degrees of violence in the natural and inoculated small-pox, gradually enlarged the sphere of his practice, and at length it included all the villages in the neighbourhood of Boston.

The comparative merits of the natural and inoculated small-pox are very concisely stated by Dr. Boyleston from the previous ravages of the disease and the result of his improved practice.

"In the year 1721, and beginning of 1722, there were in Boston 5759 persons who had the small-pox in the natural way, out of which number died

844, (this account I took from one of our prints published by authority) so that the proportion that died of the natural small-pox there appears to be one in six, or between that of six and seven.

"The following table will shew the difference between the success of the natural small-pox and that of the inoculated in New England."

Their ages.	Persons inoculated.	Had a perfect small-pox by inoculation.	Had an imperfect small-pox.	Had no effect.	Suspected to have died of inoculation.
From nine months to 2 years old.	07	07	00	00	00
2 to 5	14	14	00	00	00
5 to 10	16	16	00	00	00
10 to 15	29	29	00	00	00
15 to 20	48	47	01	00	01
20 to 30	67	65	00	02	01
30 to 40	44	42	00	02	01
40 to 50	08	07	00	01	00
50 to 60	07	06	00	01	02
60 to 67	07	07	00	00	01
Total.	247	242	01	06	06
Inoculated by Doctors Roby and Thompson in Roxbury and Cambridge.	39	39	00	00	00
Total.	286	281	01	06	06

From this statement it appears, that the whole number inoculated was 286, of whom 281 had the disease, one had it imperfectly, six were not infected, and six died; hence says he the proportion that dies of inoculated small-pox may be one in forty six or thereabout.

The following curious document may be contrasted with the vote of the town in 1793:

"At a meeting by publick authority in the town-house of Boston, before his majesty's justices of the peace, and the selectmen; the practitioners of physick and surgery being called before them, concerning inoculation, agreed to the following conclusion:

A resolve upon a debate held by the physicians of Boston, concerning inoculating the small-pox on the twenty-first day of July, 1721.

It appears by numerous instances, that, it has proved the death of many persons soon after the operation, and brought distempers upon many others, which have in the end prov'd deadly to 'em.

That the natural tendency of infusing such malignant filth in the mass of blood is to corrupt and putrify it, and if there be not a sufficient discharge of that malignity by the place of incision, or elsewhere, it lays a foundation for many dangerous diseases.

That the operation tends to spread and continue the infection in a place longer, than it might otherwise be.

That the continuing the operation among us is likely to prove of most dangerous consequence."

To Dr. Boylston undoubtedly belongs the merit of introducing this salutary practice into New-England at a period, when it was considered, even in most countries of Europe, as a subject rather of speculation than of practical utility. It was so little known at that time in England, that Dr. Boylston was solicited by the Physicians of London to give a statement of the result of his experiments in Boston. The difficulties, which were opposed to its introduction here, can be estimated only from a view of the limited knowledge of the "Esculapian tribe" and the narrow opinions of the inhabitants. To inoculate with small-pox, was to expose oneself voluntarily to a disease loathsome in appearance, and fatal in its effects. Among the well informed it was thought rash and unjustifiable; among the superstitious, who at that period of our history constituted the largest portion of the community, death from this cause was considered as suicide, and as an obvious indication of divine displeasure. The physicians were illiberal, the people ignorant, and the interested or unjust exertions of the former were warmly supported by the religious zeal of the latter. A new mode of practice which could thus rise superiour to these obstacles carries with it the conviction of its merit. Fortunately for the world, the controversies on this subject have subsided, they are almost forgotten in the brilliant discovery of Jenner; and we may be allowed to anticipate the time when the small-pox is to be found only in our systems of nosology.

CORRESPONDENCE.

LETTER I.

New-Haven, August 5th, 1809.

DEAR BROTHER,

Since writing to you a letter in which I stated my general views of the necessity and advantages of a new dictionary of our language, it has occurred to me that the opposition to the publication of such a work in this country, and to some books of mine already published, demands of me some further explanations. Under this opposition I have long been silent; and this silence has probably been considered by many persons as an evidence of the justness of the cause of my opposers; or at least, as a tacit acquiescence on my part. A principal reason for this silence however has been, an extreme reluctance on my part to enter into discussions which are generally considered as unentertaining to the mass of readers, and not very interesting even to men of letters.—Another reason has been the political state of the country, which has absorbed all considerations of minor interest.

But as my opposers have undoubtedly done me essential injury, I have to claim the indulgence of my fellow citizens, for offering through the medium of the press a short vindication of my principles and designs, against the objections which have, in various ways, been suggested.

In the first place, it has been objected, that I am attempting to *alter the English language*. This objection is unfounded; and it seems to have its origin in the opinion that Johnson, Lowth, and English writers of a like character have given us the *real language*, in its true orthography, and with a just explanation of its principles and idioms. This is a great error, of which the learned in Great Britain, as well as America will unquestionably be disabused.—I once entertained a similar opinion. Placing great confidence in the English authors, whose works are in most repute, I labored to make myself master of the language, and once thought that I had nearly accomplished my purpose. I now find this is a great mistake. I had indeed, made very familiar the whole catalogue of names, and could repeat *article*, *noun*, *adjective* and *verb*, as readily as most of my cotemporaries. But on further examination, I found that I had learnt names without understanding them, or names which do not describe the things intended—and it is a literal truth that it has cost me more time to *unlearn* "that which is naught," than it did to learn the common principles of philology.

Upon laying aside the works of the great Johnson, and Lowth, and mounting to the earliest records of our language, I found the distribution of the parts of speech to be altogether wrong. This led me to attempt a new classification of words, and a new nomenclature of the parts of speech; of which the Reviewers in the Anthology complain, calling in to their aid a dogma of Dr. Johnson.

But the authority of no man living can make that true which is false. It signifies nothing to teach a child that *an* is the *indefinite article*, because the proposition, as a general one, is *not true*; the word being used indifferently before definite or indefinite nouns. When we say, "*a* star adorns the heavens," we speak of any star indeterminately—but when we say "Venus is *a* more splendid star than Mars," we use a noun with *a*, in the most definite sense imaginable.

When we teach our children that *if*, *though*, *si*, and the Hebrew *am* are conjunctions, we teach them that which is not true; the words are *not* conjunctions, nor have they the remotest relation to that class of words. They are verbs—they have indeed lost their inflections, but they retain their signification; nor can they be easily and correctly explained without the use of equivalent verbs. A boy may, like a parrot, repeat his rules—"*if* is a conjunction—and a conjunction *connects sentences*." But tell him to resolve this sentence—"*if* you ask, you will receive," and ask him how *if*, in this case, connects sentences; will he not feel himself confounded—or consider his understanding abused?

It may be said, and this is often said, that the present classification will answer the purpose—it *has* answered the purpose—it neither "picks our pockets nor breaks our legs"—our fathers have got along well enough with this arrangement—and so shall we and our children. This is the stale objection to every improvement—and it is urged with as much force by the rude savage who lives by hunting and fishing, against all improvements in agriculture, as it is, by the Reviewers in the Anthology, against a better system of grammar.

But the present systems of grammar do *not* answer the purpose of explaining language. Take the following example. The Greek word *oti* is called a conjunction, like *quia* in Latin, and *that* in English. In Matthew xvii. 13, we find this word correctly translated *that*. "Then the disciples understood *that* he spoke to them of John, the Baptist." Beza, in his Latin version, has given the sense, but with the use of the infinitive verb. But in a translation of Montanus, which accompanies the Greek text by Leusden, the verse is thus rendered, "Tunc intellexerunt discipuli, *quia* de Joanne Baptista dixit eis"—which in English, is—"Then the disciples understood, *because*, or *for that* he spoke to them of John, the Baptist;" and what sort of translation is this? This error occurs frequently in the same version of Montanus. The truth is neither *that* in English, nor *oti* in Greek, nor *quod* in Latin is ever a *conjunction*. Nor

are they in this, and the like cases, *pronouns*; they do not stand in *the place of nouns*, they are substitutes, or representatives of a *sentence*, *clause*, or *affirmation*. "The disciples understood"....What? Why *that* which follows, the fact stated in these words: "*he spoke to them of John, the Baptist.*" This is the true construction, and it cannot be explained by the usual rules of grammar.

In Romans viii. 20, 21, our translators have made a like mistake, rendering *oti* by *because*, and disjoining *hope* from the clause to which it belongs. The two verses, rendered according to the copy of Leusden, and the versions of Montanus and Beza, would stand thus:

20. "For the creature was made subject to vanity, not willingly, but by reason of him who hath subjected the same;
21. "In hope *that* the creature itself also shall be delivered from the bondage of corruption into the glorious liberty of the children of God."

These mistakes are entirely owing to the false or imperfect principles of our grammars, or the erroneous arrangement of the parts of speech. In my Philosophical and Practical Grammar, I have given a new distribution of words, with new explanations, supported by numerous authorities, with a view to correct errors of this kind.

This work has received a large portion of the censure which customarily marks American Reviews. Why are the editors of American publications bent on decrying every thing American? Do they treat publications from English presses with the same severity? When Murray published his Grammar, he introduced a series of tenses under the subjunctive mood; such as, *if thou loved, if thou had loved, if thou shall or will love*, to the amount of some pages; tenses which are certainly not English; which I presume were never inserted in a similar work before; and which the author himself, in his Syntax, Rule 19, condemned as bad English: yet he suffered these forms of the verb to run through the eighth edition, before he expunged them. Our American Reviewers were as passive as lambs under this outrage upon classical purity. We hear from them no censure....no alarms about innovation!

My Philosophical and Practical Grammar is highly approved in New York and New Jersey—it is used in some reputable colleges. How happens it that in the metropolis of New England, it meets with a different fate? Hear what that elegant classical scholar, President Smith, of Princeton, says on this subject. In a letter to me, dated July 31, 1807, he writes:

"I consider your Philosophical and Practical Grammar, as containing the *best analysis* of the language which has yet been given to the publick. It has happily improved the opening made many years since into that subject, by the ingenious Horne Tooke. I have often been surprised that his ideas have not been more highly appreciated than they seem to have been by English philologists. Your good judgment has made them the basis of your plan; and on that foundation, you have reared, in my opinion, a *more complete system of grammar, than any writer who has preceded you.*"

Is it probable that this gentleman has wholly mistaken the merit of my work? Or do Reviewers constitute the only legitimate *Board of Criticism* on this continent? It is desirable that scholars of candor should every where examine for themselves, and not rest their opinions on the decisions of Reviewers.

It can never be a matter of indifference in any art or science, whether we teach truth or falsehood. The usual classification of words does not comport with truth; it does not assign many words to the class to which they belong; it makes numerous contradictions between principles and practice; and leaves many words without a due explanation of their force and effect in sentences. I therefore have attempted to exhibit a better arrangement. Is this an alteration of the language? Is a new method or distribution of words a change of the language itself? Was any censure ever attached to Dr. Lowth for making a new distribution of verbs? Did any mortal ever think of blaming Linne for new classifications of plants and animals; or Latham for a new classification of birds? Is not the new nomenclature of chemistry far better than the old? Surely a science itself is not changed by the method of teaching it; and that method, which is the most simple, perspicuous, and most conformable to the truth of things, will always be the best.

N. WEBSTER.

HON. THOMAS DAWES, ESQ.

LETTER II.

New-Haven, August 5, 1809.

DEAR BROTHER,

I am charged with an attempt to innovate, by changing the orthography of words. To this charge I plead not guilty; for whatever my wishes may be, I yield them to the public sentiment. In the few instances in which I write words a little differently from the present usage, I do *not* innovate, but *reject innovation*. When I write *fether*, *lether*, and *mold*, I do nothing more than reduce the words to their original orthography, no other being used in our earliest English books. And when it is just as easy to be right as wrong, why will men object? I write *hainous*, because it is the true orthography from the French *haine*, *haineux*; and this was the manner of writing the word till within an age. The modern orthography is as vitious as it is perplexing. I write *cigar*, because it is an anglicized word from the Spanish *cigarro*. I write *melasses*, because it is the Italian *melassa*, from *mel*, honey, or the Greek *melas*, black. Is this innovation? When authorities are found on both sides of a question, the Lexicographer is at liberty to prefer that orthography which is most simple, or most etymological.

But when I see a difficult and unnatural orthography, which originated in mere mistake, and which converts a word into palpable nonsense, which is the case with the word *comptroller*, no consideration shall prevent me from correcting it in my own practice. Those who wish for an explanation of that word, will find it in the preface to my Compendious Dictionary.

But in the few alterations of this kind which I propose, I am guided by fixed principles of etymology, and endeavour only to call back the language to the purity of former times, supported by the authority of Newton, Camden, Lhuyd, Davenant, Pope, Thomson, Gregory, Edwards, and a host of other writers.

I do not write *publick*, *republick*, because the introduction of *k*, was originally, a useless innovation, wholly unknown to the primitive English, and because the prevailing practice in Great Britain and America, has revived the primitive etymological orthography, from *publicus*. I do not write *honour*, *candour*, *error*, because they are neither French nor Latin. If we follow the French, the orthography ought to be *honeur*, *candeur*, *erreur*; if the Latin, as we ought, because they are Latin words, then we ought to write *honor*, &c. and this is now the best and most common usage.

In truth, there are some words whose orthography is unsettled, and the man who writes them in either manner for which he has authority, cannot be charged with deviating from any standard. This has ever been the case with the most eminent authors, and without a perfectly regular orthography, it must ever be the case.

But I am accused of introducing into my Dictionary *Americanism and vulgarisms*.

This is one of the most extraordinary charges which my opposers have ventured to suggest. I have indeed introduced into our vocabulary a few words, not used perhaps in Great Britain, or not in a like sense; such as *customable*, on the authority of a law of Massachusetts; *doomage*, on the authority of Dr. Belknap, and the laws of New-Hampshire; *fourfold*, as a verb, on the authority of the laws of Connecticut, and a century's usage; *decedent*, for deceased, on the authority of the laws of New-Jersey and Pennsylvania; and a few others, probably not twenty, noting them however as *local* terms. And is this an offense never to be forgiven? Such local terms exist, and will exist, in spite of lexicographers or critics. Is this *my* fault? And if local terms exist, why not explain them? Must they be left unexplained, because they are local? This very circumstance renders their insertion in a dictionary the more necessary; for as the faculty of Yale College have said in approbation of this part of my work, how are such words to be understood, without the aid of a dictionary?

But what have I done, that others have not done before me? Has not Johnson admitted *hog*, a sheep, and *tup*, a ram, upon the authority of local usage in England? Has he not insert-

ed many such words? And why does *he* escape the censure of our fastidious American critics? So far is he from being censurable for this admission, that his works would have had more value, if he had taken more pains to collect and explain local terms.

But I have admitted one or two cant words, such as *caucus*; and what are Johnson's *fishefy*, *jackalent*, *jiggumbob* and *foutre*!! Let the admirers of Johnson's dictionary be a little more critical in comparing his vocabulary, and mine; and blush for their illiberal treatment of me! Instead of *increasing* the list of vulgar terms, I have *reduced* it, by expunging *two thirds* of such words inserted by Johnson!! Any person who will have the patience and the candor, to compare my dictionary with others, will find that there is not a vocabulary of the English language extant, so free from *local*, *vulgar*, and *obscene words* as mine! It was most injudicious in Johnson to select Shakspeare, as one of his principal authorities. Play-writers in describing low scenes and vulgar characters, use low language, language unfit for decent company; and their ribaldry has corrupted our speech, as well as the public morals. I have made it a main point to reject words belonging to writings of this character, and shall proceed as far as propriety requires, in cleansing the Augean stable.

I have rejected also a great number of words introduced by a species of pedantry very common a century ago; such as *adjugate*, *abstrude*, *balbucinate*. Of this species, and other words not legitimate, between two and three thousand will be rejected. On the other hand, I have enriched the vocabulary with such words as *absorbable*, *accompaniment*, *acidulous*, *achromatic*, *adhesiveness*, *adjutancy*, *admissibility*, *advisory*, *amendable*, *animalize*, *aneurismal*, *antithetical*, *appellor*, *appreciate*, *appreciation*, *arborescent*, *arborization*, *ascertainable*, *bailee*, *bailment*, *indorser*, *indorsee*, *prescriptive*, *imprescriptible*, *statement*, *insubordination*, *expenditure*, *subsidize*, and other elegant and scientific terms, now used by the best writers in Great Britain and America. The number of these is not exactly known; but of the terms now well authorized, Johnson's dictionary is deficient in five or six thousand words, or about a seventh part of the English vocabulary.

But I will trouble you and the public no farther. Enough has been said to satisfy the candid and liberal; and more would not satisfy men of a different character.

N. Webster.

The Hon. Thomas Dawes, Esq.

POSTCRIPT.

In the remarks prefixed to my letter in the Centinel of August 2, you mention that my omitting *a* in *read* (which by the way is a mistake) and in *breadth*, with a few similar peculiari-

ties, has probably had an effect in limiting the circulation of my *Elements of Useful Knowledge*. This may be true in Boston; but it is not true in all parts of the country, for the work is extensively used. For retrenching the *a* in *bredth*, I have however *royal authority;* and Massachusetts gentlemen should be the last to complain of that correction of error, for it is the orthography of the word in the original charter of the Colony. Hazard. Col. 1. 239, 240.

But I do not insist upon the correction. Men, who are fond of improvement, and desirous of correcting errors in every thing else, seem determined that no errors shall be corrected in language. No blunder, no irregularity, no absurdity, however enormous, in writing, if it has obtained a general currency, must now be disturbed! Not even a barbarism of the fourteenth century must now be violated by the unhallowed hand of reformation! Such is the spirit of critics, but such is not the sense of the community, nine tenths of whom would rejoice at a thorough reformation.

When a plain unlettered man asks why words are so irregularly written, that the *letters are no guide to the pronunciation*, and the noblest invention of man loses half its value; we may silence, tho not convince him, by saying, that such is the old practice, and we must not deviate from the practice of our grand fathers even when they have erred! But when I see such blunders as *comptroller* and *island* palmed upon a nation by the merest ignorance, I confess for myself I cannot repress my desire to correct them, as they disgrace the learning and criticism of the nation. See the preface to my Compendious Dictionary. A few such blunders I shall attempt to correct. The legislature of Connecticut have seen fit to adopt the correct orthography of *controller*, in their statutes, and I trust the example will be followed by others. But my proposed corrections are few, and my orthography differs from that of the English, not more than English authors differ from each other. The truth is a reformation of orthography might be made with few changes, and upon a plan so simple as not to require an hour's attention to be perfectly master of it; and it might be introduced in a tenth part of the time required to render general the practice of reckoning money by dollars and cents. But I shall not attempt it. If men choose to be perplexed with difficulties in language, which ordinary men are never able to surmount, I will not contend with them, by endeavoring to remove such difficulties against their will. N. W.

EDITOR'S NOTES.

WE are glad to afford Mr. Webster room to expound and defend his principles in our pages. Discussion will confirm truth, and his answer shall be as widely diffused as our censure. We afforded some encouragement to perseverance in his labours, though we thought he needed [illegible] and so far from intending to do him "*essential injury*" by our obse[illegible] we hoped he might profit by them.

The answer that Mr. Webster makes to the objection "that he is attempting to alter the English language," though we did not make the charge in such general terms, is very loose and indefinite. In the first part he seems to deny, that our language is to be learned from "authors whose works are in most repute," and to appeal from the decision of "Johnson, Lowth, and English writers of a like character" upon "the *real language*," its "*true orthography*," and "explanation of its principles and idioms." But we soon find that he did not mean to be so bold, but has only mistaken the grammar of our language for the language itself; and of the grammar itself, that he will not so much quarrel with things as with names.

The example, by which it is shown that *a* is not the indefinite article, may be easily turned, we think, like an Indian auxiliary, against its employer. It has, in that sentence, "a reference to more." If Venus were the only star more splendid than Mars, our definite article would be used.

In the next paragraph Mr. Webster thinks he has confuted the notion, that some words, there mentioned, are conjunctions. The sentence, "if you ask, you will receive" is triumphantly brought out as the *crux criticorum*. Yet if the order of the members be changed, the rule will be applied without difficulty by the merest school-boy. "You will receive, if you ask." It was said formerly, "the nominative case comes *before* the verb." Now this is not literally, but only substantially true in an interrogative sentence, "am I a grammarian?" where the verb comes first. But this is no great discovery.

Of what follows, relating to the conjunction *that*, we shall say only, that we agree with Horne Tooke in his resolution and explication of such sentences, though we are perfectly indifferent about the nomenclature of Mr. Webster; nor do we believe that mistakes like that of Montanus necessarily result from the "false or imperfect principles of our grammars, or the erroneous arrangement of the parts of speech."

We feel no compunction from the gentle insinuation that "we are bent on decrying every thing American;" nor should we now take notice of it but that it allows us to remind the publick, that our duty requires more attention to native than to foreign productions, and to assure Mr. Webster, that what we think irregular shall never escape the knife because it is of domestick growth.

On the second letter we shall make no observations, because it is not in answer to any particular remarks of ours; but on the whole subject in controversy, we shall appeal with confidence to the Review of Mr. Webster's letter to Dr. Ramsay, in our fourth volume, page 670, and to the Review of his Grammar, in our fifth volume, page 267. What expectations we have of the great work of Mr. Webster may be understood from the Review of his Compendious Dictionary, which we hope to publish next month.

☞ The Poem of Mr. Head, delivered before the Society of Φ B K on their last anniversary, is promised for our next number.

INTELLIGENCE AND MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES.

FROM FRENCH PAPERS, TRANSLATED FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

PICTURESQUE TRAVELS IN GREECE.

M de Choiseul Gouffier was unwilling to leave in an imperfect state a work, by which he early announced his taste for the arts, his passion for the fine monuments of antiquity, the views of a statesman, and the talents of a distinguished writer. The first volume appeared in 1782. That was an epoch when the love of the sciences and enthusiasm for the arts possessed the most illustrious missionaries; it was a time too when the minds of all were greedy of illusion. One of the dreams which charmed Voltaire the most, in his old age, that of seeing Greece restored to a state of civilization of which she had been the cradle, seduced many who possessed a lively and brilliant imagination. In reading M. de Choiseul Gouffier, they believed this fine dream was realized; it seemed already as if Greece was going to be repeopled with her heroes, her philosophers, her artists, and her poets, in so lively a manner did this young author express his wishes and his hopes, so well did he know how to animate the august ashes, and raise up their great monuments from their ruins. Perhaps we are nearer now to this marvellous event. One prodigy more may revive all the ancient prodigies. But we do not need even this sort of interest to visit with veneration and love the sacred soil of Greece, under the conduct of so ingenious, so faithful and eloquent a guide as M. de Choiseul Gouffier. The first number of the second volume of which we shall give a particular account offers researches equally precious for history, for the arts, and for policy, in fine every thing which makes us feel the charms of truth added to the brilliant gifts of the imagination. This number contains 175 pages of the most beautiful folio text, and twelve plates engraved in the most perfect style. The two following numbers will complete the second, and form the third volume of this beautiful work. Each number costs sixty francs, and they will complete the description of Asiatick Greece, and the islands of the Archipelago. The fourth volume which will appear afterwards, and separate from the others, will give a description of Constantinople, the Bosphorus, Attica, Peloponnesus, and Macedonia.

His imperial majesty has granted a pension of six thousand francs to Mr. Luce de Lancival, author of the tragedy of Hector, and professor of literature at the Imperial Lyceum. The work of Mr. Luce draws crouds to the Theatre Franç[illegible] constantly enjoys the most brilliant success. *Le P[illegible]*

CATALOGUE

OF NEW PUBLICATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES.

FOR SEPTEMBER, 1809.

Sunt bona, sunt quaedam mediocria, sunt mala plura. *Mart.*

NEW WORKS.

Remarks on the Brunonian System, by James Jackson, A. A. S. and M. M. S. Boston; Thomas B. Wait and Co.

A Biographical Dictionary, containing a brief account of the first settlers, and other eminent characters among the magistrates, ministers, literary and worthy men, in New-England. By John Eliot, D. D corresponding secretary of the Massachusetts historical society. These were honoured in their generations, and were the glory of their times. *Son of Syrach.* Cushing and Appleton, Salem; and Edward Oliver, No. 70, State-street, Boston.

Volume X. of the collections of the Massachusetts' Historical Society, 8vo. Boston; Munroe, Francis and Parker.

Correspondence of the late President Adams, No. 2. Boston; Everett and Munroe.

A Grammar of the Greek language, in which declensions of nouns and the conjugations of verbs are explained in their most simple forms, with the rules of contraction and the syntax and prosody complete, to which is subjoined an appendix by John Smith, S. T. D. professor of the learned languages at Dartmouth college. Boston; John West. 1809.

Part 1st of vol. IV. Massachusetts Reports. By D. A. Tyng, Esq. Reporter. Newburyport; E. Little and Co 1809.

The 19th No. of the Massachusetts Baptist Missionary Magazine, containing a variety of interesting religious intelligence. Boston; Manning and Loring. 1809.

The Romance of the Pyrenees. By the author of Santo Sebastiano, in two volumes. Boston; Isaiah Thomas. 1809.

Christian Monitor, No. 11, containing seven Sermons on the education of children. Boston; Munroe, Francis and Parker. 1809.

American Law Journal, and Miscellaneous Repertory, No. 6. Vol. 2. By John E. Hall, esq. of Baltimore. Philadelphia; Farrand, Mallory and Co. 1809.

New York Medical and Philosophical Journal and Review, No. 2, for August, 1809. T. and J. Swords, printers

The Identity of Napoleon and Antichrist; completely demonstrated; or a commentary on the chapters of the Scripture which relate to Antichrist: where all the passages are shown to apply to Napoleon in the most striking manner; and where especially the prophetic number 666, is founded in his name, with perfect exactness, in two different manners. New York. 1809.

The Star in the East; A Sermon, preached in the Parish Church of St. James', Bristol, on Sunday, July 26, 1809, for the benefit of the "Society for missions to Africa and the East." By the Rev. Claudius Buchanan, L. D. from India "For we have seen his star in the East, and are come [illegible]orship him." Matt. ii. 2. Philadelphia; Bradford & Inskeep.

[illegible]ebs in Search of a Wife, comprehending Observations on Domestick [illegible]nd Manners, Religion, and Morals. From the second London [illegible] two volumes. New York. 1809.

[illegible] Universal Monarch, and not proved to be favourably noticed [illegible]ridge and Bliss. 1809.

Letters addressed to Clarinda, &c. never before published in America; with a choice Selection of Poems and Songs. By Robert Burns, the Scottish bard. To which is prefixed, a sketch of his Life and Character. Philadelphia; Jane Aitken. 1809.

NEW EDITIONS.

A Sermon preached July 22, 1807, at the funeral of the Rev. Alexander Macwhorter, D D. senior pastor of the Presbyterian church in Newark, (N. J) By Edward D. Griffin, A. M. surviving pastor of said church. Boston; C. Bingham. 1809.

The Mediator's Kingdom, not of this World, but Spiritual, Heavenly and Divine, Illustrated in remarks upon John xviii. 36. By an Inquirer. New York; Williams and Whiting. 1809.

Murray's Sequel to the English Reader. Boston; Lincoln and Edmands. 1809.

Letters from a late eminent Prelate to one of his Friends. Boston; Monroe, Francis and Parker. 1809.

The Child of Thirty-six Fathers, a Novel, translated from the French.

New Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Court of Common Pleas and other Courts, from Michaelmas Term, 46, Geo. III. 1805 to Trinity Term, 47, Geo. III. 1807—both inclusive. By John B. Bosanquet and Christopher Puller, Barrister at Law, vol. 5th. Boston; John West. 1809.

The Path to Riches. An inquiry into the origin and use of money, &c. By the late Governour Sullivan. Boston; C. Bingham.

The Minstrel; or, the Progress of Genius. By James Beattie, L.L.D. and the Shipwreck. By William Falconer, with a Sketch of the Life of the author. New York; Collins and Perkins. 1809.

The Speeches of John Philpot Curran, Esq. a new edition, with the addition of some celebrated Speeches, &c. New York; Robert M'Durmot. 1809.

Ronaldsha: a Romance, 2 vols. in 1. By Mrs. Doherty. New York; D. Longworth. 1809.

A Series of Letters on Religious Subjects, 3 vols. in 1. New York; Williams and Whiting. 1809.

A Treatise on Febrile Diseases. By Philip Wilson, M.D. F.R.S. Ed. Boston; Thomas and Andrews. 1809.

The eighth edition of the English Reader. By L. Murray. Boston; Joseph Larkin. 1809.

Orton's Discourses on secret family Worship, and Religious Observations on the Lord's Day. Boston; Manning & Loring. 1809.

Select Reviews, and Spirit of the Foreign Magazines, for August, 1809. Philadelphia; E. Bronson.

Self Knowledge; a treatise shewing the nature and benefit of that important Science, and the way to obtain it. By John Mason. Boston; Farrand, Mallory & Co. 1809.

A dissertation on the Mineral Waters of Saratoga. Second edition. larged, including an Account of the Waters of Ballstown. embellishe a Map of the surrounding country, and a view of the Rock Sprir toga. To which are added, Considerations upon the Use of th Waters, as prepared in this City, both as a Remedy in Diseas dinary Drink. By Valentine Seamen, M. I New York Hospital. New York; Collins &

WORKS PROPO

T. B. Wait & Co. Boston, prop rick. By George Campbell, College, Aberdeen. ' Certo adolescere et incrementa st

1. c. 3. A new edition, with the author's last additions and corrections. In two volumes.

T. B. Wait & Co. Boston, have in the press, The works of Mrs. Chapone: now first collected. Containing, I. Letters on the improvement of the mind. II. Miscellanies. III. Correspondence with Mr. Richardson IV Letters to Mrs. Carter. V. Fugitive pieces. To which is prefixed, An account of her Life and Character, drawn up by her own Family. In 4 vols.

T. B. Wait & Co. Boston, have in the press, Rules and Regulations for the Field Exercise and Manoeuvres of the French Infantry, issued August 1, 1791. Abridged. And all the manoeuvres added, which have been since adopted by the emperour Napolean. In two volumes. The second volume to consist of thirty-six plates.

T. B. Wait & Co. Boston, have in the press, Lectures on Systematick Theology and Pulpit Eloquence. By the late George Campbell, DD. F.R.S. Ed. Principal of Marischal college, Aberdeen.

Mathew Carey, Philadelphia, is preparing to publish Wilkinson's Royal Quarto General Atlas, with considerable additions and improvements.

Samuel T. Armstrong, of Charlestown, proposes to publish the Sermons of Dr. Watts.

Monroe, Francis and Parker of Boston, propose to publish a complete edition of the British Essayists, with prefaces, Historical and Biographical By Alexander Chalmers, A. M.

Farrand, Mallory & Co. Boston, have in the press, The Scripture Doctrine of the Atonement examined, by John Taylor of Norwich. To which is added, candid remarks upon Mr. Taylor's Discourse, entitled Scripture Doctrine, &c. By George Hampton. M. A.

Thomas and Whipple, Newburyport, have in the press, A Compendious System of Universal Geography, designed for schools. Compiled from the latest and most distinguished European and American travellers, voyagers, and geopraphers. By Elijah Parish, D. D. minister of Byfield, Massachusetts. The second edition, with many improvements.

Thomas and Whipple, Newburyport, have in the press, The Military Companion; being a System of Company Discipline, founded on the Regulations of Baron Steuben, late Major General and Inspector General of the Army of the United States. Containing the Manual Exercise, Facings, Steps, Turnings, Wheelings, Miscellaneous Evolutions, and Firings. Together with the Duty of Officers and Privates. Designed for the use of the Militia. Third improved edition, ornamented with handsome Copper Plates of Company Evolutions.

THE

AMERICAN MAGAZINE.

A MONTHLY MISCELLANY,

DEVOTED TO

LITERATURE, SCIENCE, HISTORY, BIOGRAPHY, AND THE ARTS;

INCLUDING ALSO

STATE PAPERS AND PUBLIC DOCUMENTS,

WITH

INTELLIGENCE, DOMESTIC, FOREIGN, AND LITERARY,

PUBLIC NEWS, AND PASSING EVENTS;

BEING AN ATTEMPT TO FORM A

USEFUL REPOSITORY

FOR EVERY DESCRIPTION OF AMERICAN READERS.

VOL. I.

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1815.

AMERICAN MAGAZINE,

No. 1. FOR JUNE, 1815. Vol. 1.

EMBELLISHED WITH A VIEW OF LAKE GEORGE.

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Note. In a part of this impression, the Title of the Address, page 24, is in part omitted. It should read, "Anniversary Address, delivered to the School of Literature and the Arts, at Cincinnati, Nov. 23, 1814."

TO PATRONS AND SUBSCRIBERS,

We tender our grateful acknowledgments, while we offer an apology, with regret, for reasons which are mentioned in our Notice to the Public. Confident that our succeeding Numbers will be improved, we solicit indulgence. Persons disposed to patronise this Work, will see the necessity of sending in their names at an early period. The second Number will not be furnished to any but Subscribers. Distant Subscribers will please designate the mode of conveyance; and if they are to be served by the mail, the Post Office to which the Numbers are to be sent. A List of Agents will be published, for the information of those who may patronise the Work. All Communications are to be addressed to the Editor. A Box is placed at Cook's Reading-Room, in this City, for private Communications. The succeeding Numbers will be published late in each month. On this occasion, and at such a time, especially, we should be wanting in duty to ourselves, were we not to solicit the aid of our friends.

PROPOSALS,

FOR PUBLISHING A MONTHLY MISCELLANY,

TO BE ENTITLED,

THE AMERICAN MAGAZINE.

THIS Work, which has long been in contemplation, will be Edited by HORATIO GATES SPAFFORD, Author of the Gazetteer of New-York, and other works. Mr. Spafford will have the assistance of a number of gentlemen of distinction in the various departments of learning; and he has taken measures to secure an extensive Correspondence, from every part of the State of New-York, besides contributions from Correspondents in various and remote parts of the United States.

WITH these preliminary remarks, we submit the following outlines of the Plan of the AMERICAN MAGAZINE, and solicit the patronage of our friends and the public.

THE Work will be designed for general information, and will be strictly miscellaneous; containing original and selected pieces on all subjects calculated to be useful to our readers. It will pay particular attention to practical agriculture, and this division of the Work will be arranged under the head of AGRICULTURE, or AGRICULTURAL ANNALS. The department of MECHANIC ARTS, will contain such information on this subject as may be obtained from other publications, with original and selected Essays;—and give early information of ingenious works, and new and useful inventions and discoveries. The MANUFACTURING, and MERCANTILE interests, will receive due attention. Under the head of FOREIGN HISTORY, or FOREIGN EVENTS, will be found the most important State Papers and public documents which may appear, connected with the foreign history of the times, with notices of principal events:—While under that of FOREIGN POLITICS, which will occasionally appear, will be found such speculations and opinions as may be calculated to inform the American Reader. The AMERICAN REGISTER, will be occupied with public documents, connected with the History of our own country;—and with a faithful and impartial abstract of American News, continued monthly. As this department will be solely devoted to Historical intelligence and public news, no party Politics shall ever appear in its columns. Should the Editor have occasion to introduce well written Essays on AMERICAN POLITICS, they shall appear under that head. He will invite to temperate discussion, on every subject connected with the welfare and happiness of man, and society; but will never consent that cunning and foul design shall usurp the place or right of fair argument and

sound reasoning. Liberal, in his own views—a foe to no sect or party; knowing no other distinctions than those of right and wrong, his constant endeavour shall be to do justice to all. POETRY, will form a department, large or small, as he may find occasion; and he has considerable expectations from some favorites of the fugitive Muse. The Editor is no friend to those *Medleys* of bon mots, and vulgar and profane jests and tales; but if he cannot satisfy his Readers without, he will occasionally serve up a small select dish. REVIEWS of NEW PUBLICATIONS, shall occasionally appear; and NOTICES of NEW WORKS and PUBLICATIONS, with lists of Marriages and Deaths. Brief *Biographical Sketches*, of such persons as are, or may have been of distinguished fame, and the subjects of public interest and enquiry, shall be presented to our readers. Well written Essays on POLITICAL, LITERARY, SCIENTIFIC, MORAL, RELIGIOUS, and PHILOSOPHICAL subjects, will find a ready admission, and we hope to enrich our columns frequently in this way.

IN short, without embracing all that we mean to do, we are determined to make the AMERICAN MAGAZINE, a useful and instructive companion for the leisure hours of all descriptions of people, and to put it at such a price as shall enable all to avail themselves of its instructions.

CONDITIONS.

IT will be published in Monthly Numbers, on the last Tuesday of every month. Each Number will contain, *at least* 36 octavo pages, and 12 Numbers, will form a Volume of 432 to 500 pages. With the 12th Number will be published, annually, an Index to the whole Volume; and each Number will have a Table of Contents. Should the patronage warrant the expense, many of the Numbers will be accompanied with some appropriate engraving. The first Number will be put to press as soon as we shall have ascertained a sufficient number of Subscribers to cover the actual cost. The price to Subscribers will be 2.50 cents, if paid in advance, or on the delivery of the first Number; and 3 dollars if paid at the end of the year. Distant Subscribers will have their Numbers regularly forwarded in the Mail, or by any other conveyance that they may direct. A List of Agents will be published as soon as the arrangement can be completed. The usual allowance to Agents, who will please report the number of Subscribers on the first of each month, until the first Number shall appear. Communications may be addressed either to JOHN COOK, Albany, to CHARLES HOLT, New-York, Agents for the Work; to the Printers, E. & E. Hosford, or to the Editor, at Albany.

THE

AMERICAN MAGAZINE,

CONDUCTED BY

HORATIO GATES SPAFFORD, A. M.

Author of a Geography of the United States, a Gazetteer of the State of New-York, &c. :—a Member of the New-York Historical Society, and one of the Counsellors of the Society for the Promotion of Useful Arts :—a Member of the American Antiquarian Society, and of the Berkshire Agricultural Society, Massachusetts.

No. 1. JUNE, 1815. Vol. I.

ADDRESS.

On issuing the first Number of a new Periodical Publication, it becomes the duty of the Editor to present some Prefatory Observations to the Public. Without much of professions, as to the manner and style of the Work for which he wishes to bespeak public indulgence, he will content himself with presenting the Work itself, and the outlines of his plan, which may be found in the Prospectus accompanying this Number. At the outset, he only feels warranted in declaring what he means shall be the general principles of the Work, and of the Editor in conducting it. The American Magazine shall be constantly devoted to the great interests of Religion and Morality, and the dissemination of useful knowledge. Its miscellaneous character will allow a wide range to his views, and its columns will embrace a great variety of matter and of subjects.

It would be a waste of time to speak of the influence of public journals and periodical works: no man is ignorant of this, and none will deny that in all the various walks of Literature and Science, more of general information has been conveyed to the public in this way, than in every other. And the free communication of local intelligence which these means afford, have a powerful effect in eliciting as well as in combining knowledge. In a literary point of view, they are not without a useful influence on the rising genius of the age: The young and inexperienced here first essay their powers, and cultivate their talents for discussion: here they gain confidence, and the advantages of some experience. Nor can he hardly fail to have improved in the art of thinking, who, emulous of fame, has occasionally attempted to put his best thoughts on paper.

With these few preliminary observations, the Editor earnestly solicits the communications of ingenious and intelligent persons in every department of learning and knowledge. Essays on Mo-

ral, Religious, Literary, Scientific, Philosophical and Historical Subjects, will be thankfully received;—as will Biographical Sketches, Reviews, and Notices of New Works and Publications, Accounts of New Inventions and Discoveries, and Specifications of Patents—with every other matter that may be calculated to render this Work useful and acceptable to the Public. With strong predilections for Mechanical Science, the Editor will pay particular attention to every information he may receive of ingenious works of mechanism, and take a pleasure in presenting them to the public.

The Editor is perfectly aware of the many difficulties attendant upon this undertaking, and of the frequent failures in attempts of this kind; nor has he the vanity to suppose himself capable of *ensuring* a better support from the public, or of rendering this attempt more worthy of it, than many of those that have preceded him. He can only bestow his best endeavors; and aided by many of his friends who have encouraged the undertaking, as well as by a pretty liberal Subscription, he submits this result of his labors to the public, and will spare no pains to render it acceptable and useful.

Albany, 6 *Mo.* 10, 1815.

FOR THE AMERICAN MAGAZINE.

Observations on the Nature and Cause of Certain Accidents that have usually been ascribed to the "Wind of a Ball."

NOTHING is more common, than to hear individuals who have been in engagements, either on land, or at sea, speak of accidents that occurred from the "*wind of a ball;*" whilst scientific men have either expressed their disbelief, or else advanced explanations concerning the cause of them, which time and better judgment have silently refuted. The nature of these have lately been the subjects of several interesting essays in the Edinburgh Medical and Surgical Journal, and as that work is seldom found out of the hands of professional men, I have thought that an abstract of these papers might prove interesting to your readers in general, since it is a subject concerning which, all have heard something, and many are desirous of learning more.

The first Essay is written by Mr. Daniel Ellis, a name of some distinction in the scientific world, and consists of instances of such accidents as form the subject of this communication, and of his opinion concerning the probable cause of them. He commences

the first by quotations from Sir Gilbert Blane's work on the Diseases of Seamen. This distinguished person was physician for many years to the British fleet in the West-Indies, both during and previous to the American war, and accordingly was present at all the naval engagements of that period. His remarks are as follows:

"There is a singular species of accident, to which engagements at sea, are liable, called, perhaps improperly, the *wind of a ball.* In whatever manner it is accounted for, it is a fact, that a part is sometimes severely hurt, and even life destroyed, without any visible external injury or breach of parts, or any appearance of the body from whence the injury proceeded. There were two instances in the battle of April, 1782, of a ball passing close to the stomach and producing instant death. The one was a lieutenant of the Royal Oak, the other a common sailor of the Bedford. A man in another ship, in consequence of a ball passing close to his belly, remained without sense or motion for some time, and a large livid tumor arose on the part, but he recovered. I knew (says he) a brave young officer in the army, the Hon. Captain Fitzroy, (now Lord Southampton) who had his epaulette carried off by a cannon ball at Charlestown, in consequence of which the shoulder and adjacent parts of the neck were affected for some time. A like accident happened to a marine officer in one of the late engagements, but in neither of these was the head materially affected, nor is it so apt to be affected in this way as the stomach. I never knew death the consequence of the wind of a ball on the head, though an officer (Col. Markham) in the Sultan, at the battle of Grenada, was so stunned by a shot passing close to his temple, as to be insensible for some time, but he recovered entirely in a few hours."

"In some cases," continues Dr. Blane, "the bones sustained a severe injury from accidents of this kind. Two instances of it have come to my knowledge: the one was an officer, who fell down during an engagement, without any obvious cause. Upon examination, the thigh was found to be broken, and the limb was two inches shorter, which seemed to proceed from the bone being pulverized, as it were. There was no pain. The skin was not in the least injured; so that this appears to have been what is called the "wind of a ball," but what ought more properly perhaps, to be termed the *brush* of a ball. In the other instance, two of the false ribs were fractured and dislocated, with very little visible af-

fection of the skin, though the clothes were torn. This accident proved fatal." Dr. Blane adds "that animals are affected by these accidents as well as men. A cow in the Duke was killed in one of the actions in April, by a double-headed shot passing close to the small of her back."*

"During the blockade of Pontefract Castle, in the year 1645, by the Parliament's army, as Sir Thomas Fairfax and Col. Forbes were standing and conversing together, a cannon shot from the castle passed betwixt them, the *wind* of which cast them both on the ground. Colonel Forbes lost one eye by the accident, but Sir Thomas received no material injury."†

"By the favour of a friend," continues Mr. Ellis, "who at my request, obtained the particulars from an officer of rank in the East-India Company's service, I am enabled to communicate the following additional cases. At the battle of Rohilcund, in the year 1774, a cannon ball passed between the thighs of the officer who commanded the artillery, and occasioned much blackness in both thighs, but without producing any breach in the skin. A similar occurrence took place in 1781, in the retreat of the army from the Ghauts, where a shot passed between the thighs of an officer of the Bombay establishment, and produced effects similar to those described above. Both these officers are still living (1812) in England, and have risen to high stations in the army. At the siege of Bassain, near Bombay, in the year 1780, a sepoy who was placed in the trenches to look out for shot, was too late in *dipping*; and a shot, in consequence, knocked off his turban into the trench behind him. The sepoy jumped down to pick it up. A surgeon, who happened to be near the spot, immediately went to him, but found, on examination, that the head was not in the least touched by the ball. From the state of the pulse, however, the surgeon deemed it necessary to send the man to the hospital, and though no external injury could be discovered, the man died in

* Blane on the Diseases of Seamen.

† Hargrave's history of Knaresborough. I may here add the following Extract from the Life of Col. Hutchinson, which is not quoted by Mr. Ellis. "When the Parliamentary army was besieging Newark, as Col. Hutch-
" inson, Poyntz and another Captaine were riding to view some quarter of
" the town, a cannon bullet came whizzing by them, as they were riding all
" abrest, and the captaine without any touch of it, sayd, he was killed;
" Poyntz bid him get of, but he was then sliding downe from his horse,
" slaine by the *wind* of the bullet: they held him up till they got off from
" the place, but the man immediately turned black all over."

Life. Octavo Edit. Vol. 2, p. 90

less than forty-eight hours after the accident. The officer who communicated these facts, and who was in the trenches at the time, thinks that he heard it said that the surgeon (Boyd) examined the sepoy's head after death, and found an effusion of blood."

"The same friend," continues Mr. Ellis, "has informed me that a gentleman now resident in the Highlands of Scotland, while serving as an officer in the siege of Bergen-op-Zoom, and in the act of stooping to assist a soldier who had fallen, lost instantaneously the sight of one eye, and gradually that of the other, in consequence of a cannon ball passing across his face, but without touching it, and lodging in the opposite side of the trench.

"By another friend, who served as an officer at the siege of Seringapatam, I have been informed that a lieutenant of the second battalion of Bengal volunteers, when standing in the trenches before that place, was struck down by a cannon ball passing close to his thigh, which was rendered perfectly black, but there was no breach of the external skin, nor other visible sign of injury. In another instance, a ball passed close to the face of another officer of the same battalion, which struck him down and caused a blackness of the side of the face, but produced no other sensible injury. The same gentleman, however, informed me that Capt. M. of the Bengal Native Infantry, while serving in the army with Lord Lake in the West of India, lost the sight of both eyes by the passage of a cannon ball across his face, which, however, inflicted no external mark of injury. To these instances may be added that of Colonel M. of the Bengal Artillery, who at the siege of Seringapatam, while standing in one of the batteries, and looking through a telescope at the enemy's works, at the distance of between 400 and 500 yards, was struck by a cannon ball, which broke his fore-arm, and passed across his breast, but without touching it. His arm was amputated above the elbow, and nothing unfavorable occurred in the operation. He died, however, in a few days, not, as was conceived, from the effects of the injury done to the arm, but from the "wind of the ball," which in the opinion of the surgeon, acted on his chest, and which was rendered perfectly black, although the external skin remained quite sound. All these instances are represented to have created much discussion among the medical officers of the Indian army, and were generally considered by them to be produced by what has been called the "*wind of a ball.*"

Mr. Ellis states, that he has been anxious to collect examples of these accidents from different and distant sources, in order to counteract the credulity that exists concerning them. Believing the facts indisputable, he next proceeds to examine the *manner* in which the effects are produced.

He first notices the opinions of Dr. Blane, who conjectures that these accidents may be owing to the compression and tremor of the air, in consequence of its resistance of the motion of the ball. From the circumstance of bones being sometimes broken, mere *proximity*, according to him, is not sufficient to produce the effect; but there must be some sort of contact. This, Dr. Blane thinks, is perhaps explicable as follows:—"It has been ascer-"tained, that all balls and bullets, except from rifled pieces, have "a rotatory motion, in their flight. It is evident that this motion, "on one side of the ball will coincide with the direction of its "flight, and the other will be in the opposite direction. Now, if "the latter side should come in contact with any part of the body, "it is conceivable that, in place of carrying it away, it would roll "over it, as it were, and only make a contusion."

To this explanation of Dr. Blane, Mr. Ellis replies that it will not account for many of the accidents that do occur. No force, (says he) for example, impressed upon the air, nor any motion communicated to a ball, can enable these agents, in a mechanical manner to impair vision, break the bones, and even destroy life, without inflicting any visible external injury, or breach of the parts. And he is further of opinion, from the examples cited, that it is to the *contact*, not to the *proximity* of the ball, that the violent effects described above, are to be referred.

Mr. Ellis does not consider these accidents to be produced by the operation of ordinary mechanical agents, but believes them to bear a much nearer resemblance to the effects, which in many cases, succeed to the action of *Atmospheric Electricity*. Instances illustrating this doctrine, in which a stroke of lightning produced similar effects, are quoted by him, from various authors. "A person at Troyes, was killed by lightning, and his bones were found broken, without any appearance of external injury." Livid marks, are also a frequent consequence, together with the loss of vision, or paralysis.

Having established, in his opinion, the similarity of effects resulting from the above causes, Mr. Ellis proceeds to enquire, whether the electric matter existing in the air can be accumulated

or developed, by the motion of a cannon ball, in a quantity adequate to produce the extraordinary effects ascribed to the "wind of a ball." That electric matter is abundantly diffused through the atmosphere, is well known, and is capable, when accumulated, of producing the most violent effects. Mr. E. is not, however of opinion, that a cannon ball, in its flight through so small a portion of air, is able, by friction or other means, to collect from this source alone, electricity sufficient to produce the accidents ascribed to the "wind of a ball," but is inclined to believe that a subtile matter, possessing *electrical properties*, may be developed from the air by the operations of chemical action. The illustrations of his theory are as follows:

All permanently elastic fluids owe their gazeous form to the presence of caloric in a *latent* state, and when the elasticity of the gas is reduced or overcome, its latent caloric is more or less set free. The oxygenous portion of our atmosphere contains a large quantity of heat, and when, in combustion or other chemical operations, the gas loses its elasticity, its caloric is developed and exhibited in a *sensible* state. This subtile or calorific matter, which oxygen gas is thus capable of affording, may be made to exhibit the properties of the electric fluid, for Dr. Walloston found that this gas contributed to the production of electricity, by entering into the amalgam of the rubber of the machine; and that, when the machine was duly insulated, no electricity was developed, either if the oxygen gas was withdrawn, or if an amalgam, incapable of oxidation, was employed*—facts which seem clearly to prove that air contains in a latent state, electric or other similar matter, and that it yields this matter, in a sensible state, when, in these instances, it enters into *chemical combination.*

Farther, a subtile matter, resembling in its properties the electric fluid, is developed from the air, when its elasticity is reduced by *mechanical* means. By simply doubling the ordinary density of the air, Mr. Dalton found that caloric was disengaged sufficient to raise the temperature several degrees, and in a greater and more rapid condensation to which the air is submitted in an air gun, a flash of light is sometimes visible as Mr. Fletcher observed.† Mr. Mollet farther remarked, that combustible substances were readily inflamed in a condensing syringe, by a few strokes of the piston, and in subsequent experiments of M. Biot,

* Philos. Trans. for 1801.
† Nicholson's Journal, Vol. 10.

oxygen and hydrogene gasses, mingled in the proportions proper to form water, afforded, by their rapid condensation, subtile matter sufficient to inflame them, in the same manner, and with the same phœnomena as the electric spark operates.* Without contending therefore, continues Mr. Ellis, for the absolute identity of caloric and the electric fluid, these facts must be allowed to prove that a subtile matter, exhibiting the appearances and possessing the distinguishing properties of that fluid, exists in gazeous bodies, and that it may be developed by reducing their elasticity, whether this be accomplished by chemical or mechanical means. Is it then probable that a cannon ball, in its flight through the air, acts upon it in such a manner as to develope and accumulate a quantity of this subtile matter?

From the experiments of Dr. Hutton, it appears that a cannon ball, of about two inches in diameter, moving with the velocity of one thousand feet per second, encounters a resistance from the air equal to three hundred and fifty ounces, while the resistance opposed to the same ball, when moving with a double velocity, is equal to one thousand five hundred and sixty-nine ounces, or more than four times as great; by this increasing resistance and consequent condensation of the air, its latent caloric will necessarily be developed, and as this subtile matter has been shewn, in many of its properties to resemble the electric fluid, it may like it, be supposed to accumulate in the ball, and be carried forward with it, either till the velocity of the ball so much diminishes as to permit its gradual effusion, or till like the electric fluid, it be suddenly drawn off, in the passage of the ball, by some less highly-charged conducting substance. In the latter event, it may according to its intensity, produce those accidents already described, and hence the effects usually ascribed to the "*wind of a ball*," may be considered as in their nature, truly *electrical*, and as really caused by the *agency of the subtile matter* developed, by the *condensation of the air* during the projectiles' rapid motion.

I may add, (says Mr. E.) that those who have witnessed the effect of the calorific matter, developed by the condensation of a few cubic inches of air, in a common syringe, will readily conceive what may be the operation of a twenty-four pounder, the section of whose great circle is about twenty-five square inches, and which therefore in a flight of three hundred yards, at about

* Harvy's Traite De Phys.

point blanc range, must in half a second of time, act upon and displace one hundred and fifty-six cubic feet of air.

This condensation of subtile matter can however, only take place in the earlier period of the flight of the ball, since the air by its greater resistance then, also suffers greater condensation. In this respect the theory agrees with the actual occurrence of the accidents. In a dry atmosphere also the accumulation may be greater than in a moist one, on account of the conducting and dispersing property of the air in the latter; and this Mr. E. supposes may account for the greater frequency of such accidents, in the East and West Indies, than in Europe; lastly, most of these occur in Sea engagements, or at Sieges, in both of which the parties fight often within *point blanc* range and the ball proceeds nearly in a horizontal course, but in land engagements, from the elevation of the piece and the greater distance at which it is served, the ball is soon carried out of its horizontal course, and does not again come near its object until its velocity is so much spent as to disable it from producing those effects on the air, which attend its rapid motion.

Such is the theory of Mr. Ellis and the arguments on which it is founded, and however much its correctness may be questioned, none, I believe, will deny it the praise of ingenuity.

Dr. Spence, a Surgeon in the British Navy, in a subsequent communication, expressed his disbelief in the theory of Mr. Ellis, and is disposed to attribute many of these accidents to the circumstance of cannon balls carrying light substances with them, which cause injury, by the velocity imparted to them. Canvass rope-yarn, and parts of bedding at sea, and shrubs, grass and mud, are instances of these. "I know an officer, (says Dr. Spence) who had considerable pain in the loins for some time after a battle, supposed to be from the *wind of a shot*, as he was not conscious of any thing having hit him, and there was no external mark; but the flakes of a bed from the hammock nettings, being pretty thick on his coat, shewed to me that the pain was produced by something more dense than wind, and had it been the stomach that was hit, instead of the back, I think it very probable that officer would have been killed." Many of the injuries he also thinks may be attributed to the fall itself, such as the fracturing of a limb, &c. Dr. Spence further observes, that during an action at sea, accidents will often occur without the individual being conscious of their cause, and indeed, of their *existence*, until the excitement of the occasion is over.

A third communication is from the Rev. Patrick Forbes, clergyman at Boharm, (Scotland.) This gentleman is of opinion that Mr. Ellis has not established the identity of caloric & electricity, & states that if electricity produces such effects, it is strange that parts equally necessary to life, and as easily injured, such as the brain and stomach, should be so differently affected; the "*wind of a ball*" in one case being fatal, and in the other attended only in general, with temporary consequences. To Dr. Spences' theory, he objects that the very force given to the light bodies, should produce the usual effect of violence, when striking against the body, and that according to the common order of things, external as well as internal injury ought to be the consequence.

According to Mr. Forbes, there is a mechanical cause that will sufficiently account for the effects produced by a ball passing close to the human body, and that is the vacuum produced by the rapid motion of the ball through the air. When a ball thus passes close to the stomach, there is in the first place, a great addition to the pressure on that viscus, from the condensation of the air; as soon as the ball has passed, this pressure, with a great part of that of the atmosphere is taken off; the consequence of which is a sudden expansion of all the fluids in the stomach, and the blood in the blood-vessels, and the rupture of both. The rupture of the stomach is the cause of *death*, and the extravasation of the blood, the cause of the black appearance externally: this also will account for Dr. Blane's case of the *pulverized thigh bone*. Electricity would have shivered it lengthwise, by the passage of the fluid to the earth, but a vacuum produced on one side and the pressure of the atmosphere on the other, might produce these local effects by the sudden expansion of the fluids in the internal and vascular part of the bone.

The reason why the passage of a ball near the head is less fatal may, according to Mr. Forbes, be explained, from the greater resistance which spherical bodies oppose to the pressure of the atmosphere; and the blindness which is sometimes induced, is probably owing to the sudden expansion of the humours of the eye.

An anonymous writer concludes this discussion with an essay on the various hypotheses that have been offered, and which I have already detailed. He does not consider that any of them are correct, and seems disposed altogether to doubt the effects ascribed to the "*wind of a ball*," originating according to this writer,

in a love of the marvellous : they have maintained their popularity principally with seamen, a class of persons prone to superstition. If deaths do occur in the heat of an engagement, and no external injury is perceived, apoplexy or some similar disease is more probably the cause. If there was any truth in the opinion, deaths would be more numerous in every engagement than they really are ; since it is probable that as many balls pass within a hairs, breadth, as those that strike the men, and above all, if every shot that hits an individual, produces not only the effects of mechanical violence, but also of accumulated electricity, every wound would most certainly be instantly fatal.

I here rest the subject, without venturing to give a decided opinion on one side or the other, and only express a hope that it may attract the attention of some of your scientific Correspondents, and that they will favor the public with their observations or researches on this interesting question. X.

FOR THE AMERICAN MAGAZINE.

AN ESSAY ON COINS, &c.

When the art of printing was unknown, tradition and manuscript were the grand channels which conveyed from one age to another, the blessings of knowledge ; but the torch of tradition too often shed an illusive, though brilliant light on objects darkened by antiquity ; and honesty less frequently conducted the genius of manuscript, than private prejudice. Circumstances, however, stamped on pieces of metal by public power, and thus transmitted to posterity, are not so liable to error ; and therefore an essay on coins and medals, shewing their connection with civil history, religion and the arts, is an important and interesting desideratum ; but this has been unattempted by learned ingenuity, or persevering diligence. Goguet, has given us in a dissertation annexed to the last volume of his origin of Laws, Arts, &c. a few hints respecting the weight and value of Grecian money ; but he passes without notice every device which Grecian ingenuity and superstition stamped upon it.* Dr. Prideaux, in a preface to his Connections, has but lightly touched on the subject of ancient Roman currency. Addison has dipped his mellifluent pen into this subject, which has interested by its elegance, and brightened by its

* The reverses of many Greek and Roman coins when Christianity first spread over these countries, were of an idolatrous nature.

The earliest silver coins of Rome represent the head of the Goddess Roma, who like Minerva is always figured wearing a helmet.

illustration where ever it moved; his plan, however, was very limited. The Abbe Barthelemi, Cumberland, Bernard, Goltrius, Arbuthnot, and many others who have written on coins, say little respecting their ornamental or historical designs; their object is principally confined to the commercial value of money. We propose in this dissertation, not only to examine it with this view, but to offer some hints respecting its invention, and its progressive history; and also to shew how far an accurate study of its device, may instruct us in the origin of some of the arts, unfold to us ancient superstition, and teach us many historical events, which without its aid we should never have learned.

We shall always use the terms coin, medal, and money, as synonymous, though we are aware that this is a great liberty; our reason for doing this, is to avoid a confusion to which we are liable, should we assign to each word its peculiar signification; for at this period, so far removed from the one in which we shall be engaged during most of our researches, it is impossible to distinguish between those pieces struck for the purposes of traffic, and those stamped as rewards of merit; it may not, however, be improper to give a definition of each of the terms. A coin is a piece of metal impressed with a certain device, to prevent fraud in its currency, being a standard by which the value of articles bought and sold may be ascertained, and serving as an equivalent for the same. Money differs from coin, in its being *any substance*, which public authority substitutes in its place; and a medal, in the strict sense of the word, is "a piece of metal struck on any occasion, in order to preserve the portrait of some great person, or the memory of some illustrious action." We shall make three principal divisions of our subject. Under the first, we shall consider the invention and progressive improvement of coins; in the second, their commercial value; and in the last division, the nature and importance of their devices.

First as to the origin and progress of Coining.—If we look back to the history of coinage, we find it involved in much obscurity. Antiquity has thrown her veil over the commencement of almost every art and every science, and the penetrating eye of persevering genius has seldom discovered knowledge in the first steps of her progress; here and there a fact will catch the attention of the enquirer; but the intervals are long and important; what we this moment observed in a rude, defective state, we now discover almost arrived to perfection. As we have no tradition which extends to the period when mankind first bartered with each other, speculation must supply its place.

What first suggested the idea of using coins as a general medium in exchange for wares, was no doubt the difficulty of making an equal barter of one commodity for another.* This inconvenience would be felt the moment human societies were formed, and this moment was that in which the earth was first peopled. It is supposed by many that the first coins were of metal, because, say they, metals are the only substances which can be divided and formed into single masses again without subtracting much from their original value. We may, perhaps, with some confidence object to this theory. In Iceland at the present day, tobacco and fish are current as money, and though the Danes have introduced their copper and silver coin on the island, yet any article which falls under the value of twelve fish, must be bartered for fish, or tobacco—48 fish are equivalent to one dollar, and a roll of tobacco an ell in length is reckoned the value of a fish. In many parts of Asia and Africa shells pass with the inhabitants for money: and among the Chilians, Peruvians, Mexicans, and other people of South America with whom gold and silver so much abound, these metals were not known as coin before the arrival of the Spaniards. From these and other instances which might be cited we conclude that metal was not the first substance used for money, but as the state of society advanced in improvement and as knowledge began to expand the mind, the advantages which the metals possess over other substances, as money, would be quickly perceived and adopted. Many believe that the least precious metal commenced the history and use of coins, but why this opinion is maintained we do not perceive. Iron, which is the least precious, though the most important, is of all the metals the most difficult to reduce from its ore, to a state in which it can be advantageous to commerce or the arts, and even when separated from the ore, it is as hard as at first—it must be softened before it can be forged, and this requires more knowledge than the ancients possessed when money began to circulate.

* The Romans like other ancient nations at first had no coined money, but either exchanged commodities with one another, or used a certain weight of uncoined brass or other metal. Hence the various names of money also denote weight—so *pendere* for *solvere* to pay, &c. Several Greek words are supposed to allude to the original custom of exchanging commodities, thus αρνυμαι, to exchange by giving a lamb; αρς, agnus; ωνεομαι, by giving an ass; ονος, asinus. From this hint no doubt Servius Tullius stamped pieces of brass, the first metal the Romans coined, with the images of cattle, (Pecudes') hence *pecunia*; the English word money is from Moneta, the name of the temple where the Romans coined their brass.

Gold, silver and copper* were beyond all doubt the first used for they were the first discovered, and the art of working them was first known. Iron was employed by Tubal Cain before the deluge, but the Spirit of the mighty deep buried in its bosom, besides the mortal existence, almost every discovery of man, and the ancients declare that there was a time when that metal was unknown.†

The mode first employed in converting metal into coin we suppose to be, by beating small masses, after their separation from the ore, into thin flat plates and then cutting them into different sizes according to the weight required; for that money was estimated by weight in the first æra of its history and for a long time after, there can be no question. We read in Genesis that Abraham purchased of Ephron, the son of Zohar, a burying place about

* It is remarkable that copper coinage was not in use in Greece till after the close of the Peloponnesian war. Dr. Clark states that it was first introduced at Athens at the *persuasion* of one Dionysius. From this it appears that the Greeks were rather opposed to the use of copper for the common purposes of life, being probably under the impression that the salts of copper, which are so apt to collect on this metal when much exposed, were deleterious to animal life—it was employed however, in combination with other metals in the manufacture of many domestic utensils and also for their weapons of war. In mixture with tin it formed the bronze for the armour of the Trojans; and many of the medals now found at Tenedos are of bronze, which are perhaps the same metal which once protected the heroes of Homer.

The first coins of the North of Europe were of copper. Those used in Great Britain in the time of Cæsar were of brass, (zinc and copper,) and the earliest Roman coins (those of Servius Tullius) were also of brass.

Werner supposes with great probability that copper was the first metal worked by mankind. In the western parts of North America there are some tribes of savages who though but little civilized, have shaped into many domestic conveniences the native copper of the country, which is found in large pure masses on the surface of the ground.

† Lycurgus who was obliged to fly to Crete, owing to an accusation of designing to usurp the throne of his nephew Charilaus then in his minority, upon his return was solicited to direct the government. One of his first steps it is said was a prohibition of the use of gold and silver and the substitution of iron money in its place—which was reduced in value so low that it required a waggon and two oxen to transport from place to place 50 dollars (our money) of it. This historical account we cannot admit. The value of money does not consist in the purity of the metal used but only in the estimate fixed by public authority;—this regulation would therefore in no wise counteract the luxury of the Lacedemonians. At Rome, in the first Punic war, a species of coin (as) weighing one pound was reduced to two ounces which passed for the same value as those of the pound weight had done. And in the second war the same coin was reduced to half an ounce. About 260 years after Lycurgus the highest valuation of fortune at Rome was one hundred thousand pounds weight of brass. Besides, it is highly improbable that iron was substituted, for at the time of the Trojan war it was but little known in Greece; indeed it was discovered only 13 years previous to that period, by the accidental burning of a forest, and about 15 or 20 years after gold and silver were first used as money at Argos, which happened 894 years before the Christian Æra. Iron money we therefore consider as not having currency before this period.

thirty miles south of Jerusalem, for his wife Sarah, for four hundred shekels of silver, or about 2000 dollars. Indeed among the Jews before the Roman conquest, money was reckoned by weight.

At the present period the Chinese weigh their money, and the Prussians in 1654, used bars of silver with notches which designated the weight of the intermediate pieces—from this custom sprung the word rouble. The trouble and disadvantage of cutting and weighing money whenever wanted, however, would shortly appear, and the convenience of coming to market with it thus prepared, would be generally practiced. But the fallacy of trusting entirely to appearance for the precise weight of each piece would be noticed immediately, and the idea of distinguishing the same mass by the same character, and different masses by different characters would readily suggest itself. Perhaps similar marks to those which at present designate the number of grains and pennyweights in the brass measure used in Troy weight, were the first impressions which coin received.* This short and easy manner of coining could not for any length of time continue. The eye of Fraud that is ever on the watch to contaminate, disturbed with her arts this simple process, and this being discovered, the privilege of coining which before was general, was resigned to public authority, and then complex devices were substituted for simple figures; and at length the head of the prince, the date, and the legend.

Till the year 1552 all coining was performed with the hammer,†

* The figure of a tortoise which is one of the emblematical representations of Peloponessus, is the earliest impression on Grecian money. Whether the tortoise was the first figure, after simple marks, ever made on coin, may admit of some question. Figures emblematical of the country, we think more than probable were struck before the head of the ruling Prince. The crescent which blazes on the Turkish banner is the most ancient symbol of Byzantium, and appears on the most antique medals of that city. The AS of the Romans which was their first brass coin, bears the impression of a double Janus. In opposition to the opinion that complex figures succeeded immediately to simple marks, may be stated that the Denarius of the Romans, the value of which was ten pounds of brass, bore the mark of the letter X;—the Quinarius, valued at five pounds of brass, the mark V.; and the Sestertius, two pounds and a half of brass, was marked by the letters LL. S. (libra. libra semis.)

This mode of distinguishing coins would be a more easy transition from simple marks, but the mind does not always proceed by regular advances, in its march of investigation.

† Medals representing particular circumstances were often engraved, as but a small number were required. Thus in the time of Ptolemy Philadelphus 270 years B. C. medals were engraved representing in miniature, his splendid achievements in the arts. Dr. Gillies observes, that by these medals only we can now estimate the reports delivered down to us concerning the wonderful splendor of public buildings, either in the cities embellished by Ptolemy or in those which he founded.

when Anthony Brusher, a French engraver, contrived what he called a coining mill, but it was not till a century after its invention that its use became common; and even now, in Russia, Morocco and Persia the use of the hammer is still continued. Thus have we endeavoured to sketch, from probability and from fact, an outline of the general history of coining.

(To be continued.)

To the Editor of the American Magazine.

SIR,

THE acknowledged importance and vast magnitude of the British trade in wool and woollen manufactures, having induced me, some years since, to investigate the origin and history of this great branch of national wealth to Britain, I send you a few facts and observations on the subject, presuming they may gratify the curiosity of some of your readers. It will be seen that these facts are thrown carelessly together, and that I am far from having attempted any thing more than a hasty collection, merely to gratify a kind of curiosity excited by the growth of our own trade in the same line.

Pinkerton says, * "Wool had been regarded as a grand staple of England, as early as the 12th century, but was chiefly exported in a crude state, till Edward III. encouraged settlements of Flemish manufactures. Wool soon became the standard of private property and the prime article of commerce. Taxes and foreign subsidies were estimated by sacks of this commodity. Great quantities of raw wool continued to be exported to the Netherlands and Hanse Towns; but in the reign of Elizabeth it began to be chiefly manufactured at home, and the exportation of woollen cloth was then valued at a million and a half annually. At length the exportation of raw wool was prohibited." It is stated on the same authority, that in 1807, the English manufacture of wool was supposed to yield 15,000,000 pounds sterling. In 1810, it was estimated at 17,200,000 pounds.

But the most striking circumstances in the view I have taken of this subject, is the vast number of sheep, and amount of wool in Great Britain and Ireland at such early periods. In 1467, sheep were permitted to be exported from England to Spain.

In an old book entitled 'A Plan of English Commerce,' the author enters into detailed enumerations of the number of sheep in England, Scotland and Ireland, and the amount of the trade

* Mod. Geog. vol. I. p. 101.

in wool. He says that in June, 1673, he was informed 'by very grave and creditable persons,' inhabitants of the town of Dorchester, that upon a wager decided, it was made appear there were 600,000 sheep feeding within a circle of twelve miles diameter embracing that town. And a like account from grave and judicious persons, informed him of 400,000 sheep at one time offered for sale at Weyhill fair; and at Burford fair in Dorsetshire, in the same year, upwards of 600.000 were offered for sale. But, he says 'the business of *growing* wool, is not confined to small parts, or towns, or districts, or counties, but is every where in all parts an employment of the people, not by thousands but millions.' Ireland, at that time, yielded 100,000 packs of wool per annum to England, the pack being 240 pounds. He says that Scotland sent yearly to the London market, at least 120,000 sheep. The South Downs, an extent of sixty-five miles in length and five or six miles wide, was 'all covered with sheep of a small size, but of the finest wool;' and here he reckons 210,000 sheep that produce fleece wool, exclusive of the yearlings or lambs. Romney marsh, wholly employed in breeding and feeding of sheep, produced 141,330 fleeces. In 1607, the wool annually sent from Scotland to be manufactured in England, was valued at 60,000 pounds sterling.

I pass by the many excellent remarks of this writer on the different kinds of sheep in England, their comparative value, and the means suggested of further improvement. They were, no doubt, good in their time, and there was a time when they might have been deeply interesting and instructive to our farmers. In America, we are but just beginning to appreciate the value of sheep, and the enquiry which I had started might lead to valuable discussions. I hope some person will favor the public, through the same channel, with an estimate or account of the number of sheep in this country. If I recollect rightly, I have somewhere seen lately, that the number in Britain is computed at 25,000,000. It seems to be pretty generally admitted that no country is more favorable to the raising of sheep than the United States, and that no other animal affords so great a profit to the farmer;—nor has he, on any other product of his labor and expense, a profit at once so great and certain.

AGRICOLA

LITERATURE OF THE WEST.

The following address, sent us from Cincinnati on the Ohio, in a small Pamphlet, presents a pleasing and instructive view of the progress of the arts, and of the spirit of improvement in the Western Country. We thank our Correspondent for his attention in forwarding it, and solicit a continuation of his favors.

ANNIVERSARY ADDRESS,

Delivered to the School of Literature and the Arts, at Cincinnati, Nov. 23, 1814.

Gentlemen—

You have equal reason with myself, to regret the absence of that distinguished member,* to whom was assigned the delivery of an oration on this evening. Having, so recently, been appointed his successor, I should not venture to exhibit my crude and desultory performance, which has been hastily executed in the midst of pre-existing engagements, but for a conviction, that his removal has imposed on every member an obligation to augmented industry. Under this impression, and in the hope of your indulgence, I shall proceed with confidence in the execution of my task.

Our first year's labors were closed, by the interesting discourse, which has just been read. During that period, we have assembled for literary exercise, more than twenty times; and our President has delivered, on Astronomy and Natural Philosophy, a variety of Lectures, equally eloquent and perspicuous. He has deduced from them sentiments both amiable and exalted, such as a philosophical survey of the works of God invariably excite; and has interspersed them with many impressive recommendations of the pleasure conferred by the acquisitions of knowledge. Thus, from his labors have resulted both instruction of the understanding, and improvement of the heart. The objects and character of our infant association have been defined and established; an impetus has been given it, and regular exertion only is wanting, to raise it into notice and respectability.

The essays of the members, if less learned and profound, have equalled all *reasonable* expectations. Some of them consist chiefly of original matter, while others manifest a degree of research, which is honorable to their authors, and auspicious to the School.

It would be amusing to review their contents, but being restricted to limits too narrow for that undertaking, I will substitute a catalogue of their titles, that, by a single glance we may see the

* Josiah Meigs, Esquire

number and diversity of the subjects to which our attention has been directed. I shall enumerate them in the order of their delivery:

1 An Essay on Education—2 on the Earthquakes of 1811, 1812 and 1813—3 on Light—4 on Carbon—5 on Air—6 on the Mind —7 on Agriculture—8 on Caloric—9 on Gravitation—10 on Instinct—11 Notices of the Auroræ Boreales of the 17th of April and 11th of September, 1814—12 an Essay on Water, considered chemically and hydrostatically—13 on Common Sense—14 on Heat—15 on Mechanical Powers—16 on the Theory of Earthquakes—17 on Enthusiasm—18 on the Geology of Cincinnati and its vicinity, illustrated with mineral specimens and a vertical map —19 on the Internal Commerce of the United States—20 on Hydrogen—21 on Rural Economy—22 on the Geology of some parts of New-York—23 on General Commerce.

The third and subordinate portion of our exercises, poetical recitation, has been strictly performed; and our ALBUM of poetry already exhibits specimens indicative of a cultivated taste. The proposition to connect with the pieces recited, such critical remarks as they may suggest, has received some attention, and promises to give to this branch of our performances an interest and dignity which were not originally anticipated.

Such, briefly, is the character of our introductory labors. Their retrospection cannot fail to excite a portion of complacency and hope in ourselves, though from our fellow citizens they may extort neither the meed of approbation, nor the humbler reward of occasional attendance. These, however, are certainly attainable. Our lot, gentlemen, is cast in a region abundant in but few things, except the products of a rich and unexhausted soil. Learning, philosophy and taste, are yet in early infancy, and the standard of excellence in literature and science is proportionably low. Hence, acquirements, which in older and more enlightened countries would scarcely raise an individual to mediocrity, will here place him in a commanding station. Those who attain to superiority in the community of which they are members, are relatively great. Literary excellence in Paris, London or Edinburgh, is *incomparable* with the same thing in Philadelphia, New-York or Boston: while each of these, in turn, has a standard of merit, which may be contrasted, but cannot be compared, with that of Lexington or Cincinnati. Still, comparative superiority in Europe, the Atlantic States, or Back-woods, is equally gratifying; and gives to him who possesses it, the same influence over the community to which he belongs.

But it will, perhaps, be asserted, that in a state so young as this *no* literary distinction is attainable, that would outvalue its cost; that academies and colleges are yet scarcely instituted; that libraries, philosophical apparatus and scientific teachers are equally rare and imperfect; that associations for improvement, animated and impelled by a persevering spirit, can find no habitation in these rude and chequered settlements; and, lastly, that our countrymen are accustomed to look with frigid indifference on every species of literary effort. This is, indeed, pouring cold water on the flame of literary ambition: but that noble passion is not to be thus extinguished; and if a single spark remain, it will enable us to perceive, through the Gothic darkness which envelopes our literature and science, the certain though narrow paths to a brighter region.

New countries, it is true, cannot afford the elegancies and refinements of learning; but they are not so unpropitious to the growth of intellect, as we generally suppose. The facilties of improvement which they furnish, differ from those of an old country, more in kind, than degree. In new countries, the empire of prejudice is compartively insignificant; and the mind, not depressed by the dogmas of licensed authority, nor fettered by the chains of inexorable customs, is left free to expand, according to its original constitution. But the sources of information are fewer, than in old countries; and in balancing between the exemptions of one and the advantages of the other, it must be acknowledged that the latter has a great ascendancy. New countries, however, possess some positive and *peculiar* aids to the developement of understanding. Of these, the principal are to be found in the composition of their society. St. Pierre, in the preamble to his Arcadia, has made a beautiful allusion to this, when depicting an imaginary community of immigrants, assembled on the river of the Amazons.

"They abjured (says he) the national prejudices which had rendered them, from infancy, the enemies of other men; and especially that which is the source of all the animosities of the human race, and which Europe instils with the mother's milk into each of her sons, the desire of being foremost. They adopted, under the immediate protection of the Author of Nature, the principles of universal toleration; and by that act of general justice, they fell back without interruption into the unconstrained exercise of their particular character. The Dutchman there pursued agriculture and commerce into the very bosom of the morasses; the

Swiss, up to the very summit of the rocks; and the Russians, dexterous in managing the hatchet, into the centre of the thickest forests. The Englishman there addicted himself to navigation, and to the useful arts, which constitute the strength of states; the Italian, to the liberal arts, which raise them to a flourishing condition; the Prussian, to military exercises; the Poles, to those of horsemanship; the reserved Spaniard, to the talents which require firmness; the Frenchman, to those which render life agreeable, and to the social instinct which qualifies him to be the bond of union among all nations. All these men, of opinions so very different, enjoyed, through the medium of toleration and internal communication, every thing that was best in their several characters, and tempered the defects of one by the redundancies of another. Thence resulted from education, from laws, and from habits, a combination of arts, of talents, of virtues, and of religious principles, which formed of the whole but one single people, disposed to exist internally in the most perfect harmony, to resist every external invader, and to amalgamate with all the rest of the human race."

A state of society analogous to this is actually presented by Ohio. In no country of the same age and numbers, do the immigrants exhibit more diversity. The sister states, from Georgia to Maine, the Canadas and West-Indies, the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the empires of Europe, from the shores of the Baltic to the Mediterranean, have contributed to increase and variegate our population. With the currents of emigration from those countries, have flown into this, many peculiar customs, manners and sentiments, which furnish the elements of a new national character, and display, if not the works of each, at least the principles on which they were designed and executed. A society, thus compounded, has *within itself* no indifferent substitute for travelling; and exhibits, in the lapse of time, what belongs naturally to change of place.

(To be continued.)

LAW REPORTS.

CRIM. CON.

Sheriff's Court, Bedford-Street, December 10, 1814.*

The Earl of Roseberry, v. *Sir H. Mildmay.*

We do not select this cause as a celebrated law decision, but as a celebrated record of high-born depravity. Not, again, because it is a crim. con. action; for, adultery is too fashionably prevalent, to give it importance as a vice: but, because this cause is strongly marked with more than ordinary atrocity. The adultress was sister to the defendant's lately deceased wife.

The plaintiff, a nobleman of ancient creation, in the northern part of the kingdom, married, in the year 1808, the eldest daughter of the honorable B. Bouverie, a lady of the most exquisite beauty and accomplishments, and scarcely in her eighteenth year.

My Lord and Lady Roseberry lived together in perfect harmony. Their union was blessed with four children—two sons and two daughters; and her ladyship's conduct was that of an exemplary wife and mother, until seduced from the paths of rectitude by Sir Henry Mildmay.

It would appear, that their relationship by marriage, by uniting the two families in the strictest bonds of friendship, had peculiar-

* Judgment for the Plaintiff, £15,000. The following extract from an English paper, will tell something more of the tale of the fugitive pair.

"The Countess of Roseberry.—This Lady adjourned to the Old Ship tavern in Brighton, three days previous to her departure, with Sir H. Mildmay, for the Continent. Her Ladyship came from London in a carriage and four, by the route of Horsham and Steyning, and during her stay at the above inn, observed the utmost seclusion. The Countess had two female attendants with her, who styled her "my lady," but in other respects she was perfectly *incog.* Sir H. Mildmay arrived on the third day in a post chaise and four, and was known at the tavern only as Mr. St. John.—On the following day the whole party set off for Newhaven, and took their passage on board the Wellington packet for Dieppe.—In stature the Countess is rather below the middle size; and in form, graceful and elegant. Her features, though overshadowed with a pale and thoughtful cast, appeared extremely beautiful. Sir H. Mildmay is stated to be handsome in person, and of a generous and improvident spirit. He is embarrassed in circumstances, but it is thought that a few years of restricted expenditure, would fully reinstate him in point of fortune, notwithstanding the amount of damages in which he stands convicted, as his estates in Hampshire are extensive. The Countess and her seducer have taken up their residence in France. In the event of their marriage, their offspring cannot succeed to any entailed property; not even to the estates of Sir Henry, (supposing the death of his son by his first marriage) as by the recent decision of the Court of King's Bench, the espousal of a sister of the first wife is declared contrary to the civil as well as canonical law. A report reached town last week, that the Countess had been taken out of a river in a drowning state, but whether her immersion was designed or accidental, is not stated."

ly given, to Sir Henry and to Lady Roseberry, those opportunities, which they, so fatally, employed to the destruction of their own honor, and the eternal peace of mind of the too confiding, honorable, Lord Roseberry.

Public curiosity has been so much excited by this discovery, that we should deem it intrusive to enter into a minutiæ of detail. Suffice it to say, that Lady Roseberry, now only twenty-four years of age, had not been educated according to the fashionable system of voluptuous accomplishment, but was reared by a father, more distinguishable for the possession of every virtue, that can elevate and adorn human nature, than for his high descent. Sir Henry is not more than twenty-seven years of age, and made his visits through the window to the lady's bed-chamber, where he was, eventually, detected by Mr. Primrose, in the garb of a common sailor, with his beard unshaven. In this base disguise, he was dismissed by the way he had entered.

On the defence, Mr. Brougham, with great eloquence, deplored the melancholy event which occupied the attention of the court, forbearing to glance the slightest imputation on the truly honorable character of my Lord Roseberry. The letters that passed between the guilty persons were not only romantic, but were amorous beyond the bounds of delicacy. The disgraced pair now cohabit in France.

From this brief statement, we will draw a few reflexions on adultery. It is a crime, which in its commission, displays a variety of shades. Some *well bred* husbands will not see the vices of their wives; and, notwithstanding the infamy is notorious, that my lady entertains her cecisbéo; and, that my lord keeps his Opera dancer; yet, the fashionable world is not so prudish as to brand the wife with dishonor, when the husband appears to approve her conduct. This is the *delicacy* of refined principles, and an irrefragable proof of highly polished manners.

These accommodating *hautontiades* do not interfere with each other's pleasures. They politely live together in the same house, eat at the same table, and are patterns of conjugal felicity!

"Nothing," says Joseph Surface, "makes a lady so indifferent to the opinions of others, as a consciousness of virtue." One little faux-pas, on the other hand, will make her so sensitive in appearances, that her amours, often, continue unexposed to her family. But as repeated security will, sometimes, lull caution to a momentary sleep; and, notwithstanding detection follow, what is the result? One species of man of honor resorts to the courts.

and receives his damages, in full compensation for a worthless wife. It is a nine days wonder! If a duel be the consequence, no matter, the recollection is soon lost in some other novelty.

A divorce obtained, sometimes the guilty parties intermarry—the adultress is made an honest woman;—she is restored to society. What, if a lady desert a young family of beautiful children! —will her second marriage lull to peace the pangs of outraged nature? Yes—ambition will calm these uninvited whisperings, when her infamy has elevated her to the rank of a Countess; and, still more so, when it creates her a Duchess. On the passing of the divorce bill, the adultress goes to church—not in the penance of a white sheet; but, in the magnificence of a French lace robe, attended by bride *maids*, displaying like herself the emblems of purity around their outward persons.

That a Countess, or a Duchess, may chance to feel the sting of these remarks, we do deplore—but example does not originate in us; we borrow it from others.

From these right honorable sinners, we will turn to another species of husband: previously, however, let us consider marriage, both as a divine and human institution.

Marriage, the sacred ordinance of the Almighty, is a covenant, pledged at the altar, by which the human race is increased and multuplied, and the casualties and infirmities of humanity are soothed by the endearing ties of reciprocal affection. In its civil acceptation, it is the bond of society. It is a moral union of the sexes, by which domestic felicity is insured, and worldly wealth is handed down, uninterruptedly, to posterity.

In civilized states, it is the reward of virtuous love, and gives a chastened rapture to purified desire. With the softer sex, it unfolds the noblest energies of the human mind, in the progressive duties of daughter, wife, and mother. To man, it is the cheering solace of his labors. His avocations in an active profession fulfilled, the fatigues of the day are forgotten in the charms of his domestic fire side. His wife is his treasure—his children his joy. They form a family compact within themselves, in which each has an allotted part. The harmony thus preserved is beautiful. Reared in virtuous principles, they feel their dependence on their Maker. Religion mingles with their enjoyments. In prosperity they are grateful for the blessings they possess. In adversity they are resigned, and bow, with patient fortitude, before the chastening hand of providence.

In barbarian societies marriage, still, preserves its virtuous attributes. It represses illicit appetite; it calls forth parental affection; and, it goads even the indolent to make provision for their offspring.

All this, however, is rather the INSTITUTION than the RESULT of marriage. In proportion as civilization refines, licentiousness increases in a polished state. The occupations, amusements, studies, and accomplishments, of the fashionable world, teem with dormant provocations to inflame highly educated sensibility. Learning, the arts, the sciences, all, have their share in vitiating the heart. Indeed, some of the brightest ornaments of our literary schools, disseminate concealed poison throughout the most brilliant efforts of the human understanding. Pope is celebrated for his Eloise to Abelard; Voltaire for his Pucelle d'Orleans; Rousseau for his Nouvelle Eloise; Goëthe for his Werther—these, and many others we could name, seduce the mind, by leading the heated imagination to forbidden indulgences. The arts and sciences unveil the mysteries of nature; and, the fashionable accomplishments and dress of the day remove whatever little barrier may be left for the protection of native modesty.

Hence it is, that marriages become a hateful bond. Voluptuousness lights her torch at the shrine of Hymen; but when satiety succeeds, the roving heart pursues a new enjoyment. And, when an honorable husband, too late, discovers, that he has given his affections, and linked his fate with a woman, mentally depraved, although corporeally virtuous, how shall his high-minded sense of honor provide for the continuance of that unstable chastity? It is an agonizing doubt, and the best concerted precautions are feeble instruments of safety. If he protect his wife by being the constant companion of her pleasures, he is ridiculed as a jealous monster—if he leave her to solitary pursuits, and temptation follow, he is censured as a conniving husband. What a task has he to undertake! He must protect the wife, whose beauty has enamoured him—whose accomplishments enslave him—whose virtuous wishes are his primary law. She is the mother of his adored children. Yet, does she stand upon a precipice, from which her own frailty, and the villany of others may, alas! too soon, hurl her to perdition. What step shall he pursue to avert this evil?

To-day his heart bounds in the fulness of his felicity. He possesses a jewel, compared with which, the treasures of the east would loose their lustre. To-morrow, the seducer comes, and

with him all the imps of mental torment. The estrangement of his wife's affections becomes too obvious to be misconceived. She receives his tenderest cares with coldness—his chastened endearments with disgust : his honor is blasted—his happiness is wrecked—his home is his dungeon—his former bliss becomes his present bane. His heart shuts itself up, in solitude and withers—he dies a living death !

Perhaps he may appeal to the law—alas ! what relief can that afford him ! Will it pour balm into his afflicted bosom ? Will it heal his wounded honor ? No !—he cannot estimate his loss by arithmetic, or state the sum total of his miseries by the cold rules of calculation. He scorns so base a compromise ; and, hurries from the court, with contempt written on his brow, and indignation boiling in his heart.

Now, let us pursue the weaker criminal awhile. Immorality, we will presume, has not assumed a sovereignty over conscience. In a moment of delirium, she sunk, unconsciously, into the arms of a villain. Her mind did not consent ; but her passions controuled her better judgment—passions, not the native inhabitants of her constitution ; but passions, artificially created, by an indulgence in fashionable customs. What is to be expected from the prudence of a girl, just bursting upon the world, in the delicious bloom of sixteen. Maturing Lummus, who, from the dangerous impressions of her private studies, repairs, in all the vanities of revealed beauty, to the fascinations of the ball room. There, she waltzes with an elegant youth ; and, as she repeats the mazy round, her whirling head, and wildly throbbing bosom, unconsciously resign her almost naked person to the fervent embrace of her too dangerous partner. They are so united by the dance, that he almost inhales the voluptuous languor issuing, in broken sighs, from her delicious lips ; the pressure of his surrounding arms communicates infection ; and, she retires, from the delights of the evening, full of new, but imperative wishes.

What can be expected from such a system of education ? What, but the fate of the beautiful and accomplished Lady Roseberry, although, as we have stated, her ladyship has not this plea for her frailty.

Now, to the catastrophe. The guilty hour of rapture flown, the veil of delusion drops. The unhappy culprit begins to think of her husband. She ponders on his faithful attachment—his smiles of love—his anticipation of her wishes—his watchful tenderness of her slightest indisposition—his animated joy at her re-

covery. She dwells on her little innocent, forsaken, children. Never—never—will she see them more. They advance, in her imagination, to womanhood. They are orphans; for the infamy of their mother hurried their father to a premature grave!

Maddening vision! shall she implore her husband's forgiveness? Impossible!—Shame forbids the rash attempt. Well, then, she is firmly linked to eternal disgrace. The arms of her paramour are her only protection from the bitter scorn of an unfeeling world. We will pursue the picture no longer. Jane Shore, now, stands before us in the last agonies of life, and we tremble at our own reflections.

Lastly, to the seducer. In what language, shall we pourtray his crime? In this world, the glittering illusions of fashion, may preserve him from the horrors of habitual despair; but, at that thrice dreadful hour, when the soul is about to quit its mortal tenement, and to appear before an all just God, where are his hopes?

Let us not be censured as the stern reviewers of fashionable* morality; for, in this our lesson, we are the friends of the rising generation. May our admonition be impressive!

* Consult Gibbon, vol. VIII. p. 57 to 70. Jacob's Law Dictionary, Art. Adultery. Blackstone's Commentaries, vol. IV. Pp. 64, 65, 191. Sale's Koran, vol. I. Pp. 55, 56, 90, 91, 93, 129.

LOMOND'S ISLE.

A SCOTCH TALE.

Soft blew the gale on Lomond's tide
While Duncan steer'd his blooming bride
As on the waving helm reclin'd
She gave her loose locks to the wind:
And smil'd to see the lucid stream
Catch from her eye another gleam.
"Now urge the boat—the tide is slow—
Yon envious larches hide our foe;
His oars are swift—his sails are wide—
He skims beneath yon mountain's side:
Ah! now his bugle's note I hear—
His plume—his milk-white plume is near
Haste, or a cruel kinsman's pow'r
Will close in blood our bridal hour!"
"Nay, Mona, shew thy beauty's light,
And cheer with smiles thy faithful knight
'Tis but the milk-white solan laves
His clashing pinion in the waves:

'Tis but a distant goatherd's bell
Wakes echo in the winding dell.
Yon isle whose cluster'd willows lean
So lowly o'er their mirror green,
Shall yield us in its silent breast
A haven of untroubled rest.
Amid the rocks which round it rise
Like giant guards of paradise,
The chapel's holy relics still
Shall flying lovers guard from ill.
"Believe my faith! our humble pray'r
May win a richer blessing there
Than list'ning angels ever lent
To vows on golden altars spent:—
And he whose hallow'd hand shall twine
Our plighted hearts in bonds divine,
Bears in his brow no wintry frown
To wither rosy Pleasure's crown.—
O fear him not!....tho' years of care
Have blanch'd his cheek and thin'd his hair,
Yet well my noble Brother loves
To bless the heart which Beauty moves;
For once he fondly hop'd to trace
A smile like thine in Beauty's face.—
Perhaps o'er love's deluded trust,
Perhaps o'er friendship laid in dust,
He mourns;—for oft with hollow eye
He gazes on the fading sky;
Or prints, with slow and palsied hand,
An image on the silver sand:
But, dearest, soon thy bright eye's beam
Shall cheer his clouded fancy's dream,
And teach him on yon mould'ring shore
To gaze on lifeless shapes no more."
The lover ceas'd—with bolder stroke
His oar the sparkling crystal broke,
While brighter than the current's brim
Soft Fancy's mirror shone for him.
Starts Mona now?—'tis but the surge
Moans on the rocky rampart's verge,
As safe beneath the islet's side
Led by the waning moon they glide:—
Now, Lady, trust thy pilot's hand,
The bounding boat has touch'd the strand!
Such tints her ice-cold cheek adorn
As steal upon the frozen morn;
Such tints as best in Beauty's cheek
Tell of the doubt that dares not speak

"Why shrinks my love?—yon torch's ray
Is near to gild our level way:
The pastor of the sacred isle
Awaits us with a brother's smile.
See, from his ivied casement's height
The blazing beacon lends us light!
The faggot, dear to midnight mirth,
Burns cheerly on his social hearth,
And from his heart—tho' cold it seems,
The richest balm of kindness streams,
As Nature's frolic pencil shews
In frozen spar its rainbow hues;
Or as old Neva's rock retains
A thousand rubies in its veins.—
He comes!—thy smile will sweeter prove
Blest by a gentle brother's love:
Our joy will fairer blossoms give
If Arthur sees and bids them live!"
She sighs—but now the sigh is past!
The guiding torch approaches fast:
The Priest of Lomond's lonely isle
Comes with a guardian-brother's smile—
A lover's hand has half withdrawn
From Mona's cheek the shading lawn
And half-reveal'd its rosy glow,
And half her bending neck of snow.
But why is Arthur's form unseen
Beneath his sable mantle's screen,
As o'er their path, with palsied hand
He waves his half-extinguish'd brand?—
The pressure of that hand might spread
The icy dew which damps the dead!
O'er his pale cheek and hollow eye
Loose locks their ebon shade supply—
A glance she dares not look upon
Is there—it glistens, and is gone!
So mute, so wan, the shrouded ghost
Stalks on a drear and deathful coast!
Now from the chapel's sainted ground
His footsteps call a boding sound—
The mould'ring aisle is dim and damp,
Scarce burns the lone funereal lamp—
It brightens now with lurid glare
While Arthur breathes the nuptial pray'r.
His task is done—the sable veil
Falls from his visage stern and pale—
"Depart!—thy far sought prize possess—
Thou could'st not see and love her less!

Thou knew'st not in how dire a chain
Thy brother liv'd and lov'd in vain!
I thought——'twas but a dream of heav'n!
That Mona's faith to me was given;
But I will slumber now, and dream
That her's to thee may faithful seem.
I give thee at this holy shrine
The wand'ring heart which once was mine!
It is not rage which burns my brow—
It is not grief——I scorn them now!
But bear her farther from my soul
Than yonder flames that mock the pole!—
Away!—thy guilty Syren hide—
Thy ruin'd brother's faithless bride—
Away! lest in his burning brain
No trace of nature's law remain!"
Hears Mona yet?—her mantle's fold
Is still in gasping Duncan's hold:
But she is gone—already now
She trembles on the loose rock's brow,
While Duncan, dumb, with glaring eye
Sees but the glance that bids him die.
'Tis Arthur starts—'tis Arthur calls
As in the whelming wave she falls—
"Turn, Mona, to a brother's breast!
Return, sweet Mona, and be blest!"
He flies—her floating veil is there,
Her tresses quiver still in air:
He plunges in the watry bed,
And grasps the raiment of the dead.

* * * * * * *

The pang is past——O'er Mona's woes
Unvex'd, the silent waters close:
On Lomond's isle the chapel grey
Still tells of Duncan's bridal day,
And still along that lonely shore
The stranger sees a hermit hoar
Who gazes on the watry glass
And bids a long-lov'd image pass:—
But Duncan's eye no record shows
Of blighted love or cherish'd woes;
He shuns the dim and silent hour,
And talks of peace in Wisdom's bow'r;
But when the purple bowl he fills
While mirth resounds and Music trills,
He sees in Lomond's glassy tide
A ruin'd Brother's buried Bride.

* * * * * *

ALSO AND LIKEWISE.

A COUNSEL once, of talents vain,
A Quaker rudely treated,
Who often in his story plain
The word, *Also*, repeated.

"Also," said Brief, with sneering wit,
"Wont *Likewise* do as well?"
"No, friend; but, if thou'lt permit,
"Their difference I will tell."

"Erskine's a counsel learned we know,
"Whose talents oft surprise,—
"*Thou* art a counsel friend *Also*,
"But surely not *Like—wise!*"

A TOUR THROUGH FRANCE.

A Letter from a Lady to her Cousin in London, in 1814.

Paris.

MY DEAR HARRIETT,

THERE are scenes which leave so deep an impression on the mind and heart, and which furnish so many subjects of serious reflection, that it is difficult for the most volatile disposition to shake off their effects: such have been their influence on the spirits of your gay Emily, from her visit to Versailles, that notwithstanding the whirl of novel amusements that I have been engaged in, and which had dissipated my recollections for a short time, yet I feel the *penseroso* sensibly predominate, as I call to mind this splendid and once highly favoured situation,—the scene of prosperous majesty, elegance, and taste,—the contrast of misfortune, and the pomp of usurpation.

With propitious weather, and buoyant with all those spirits which health and affluence can bestow, we set off last Monday, to view the favorite palace of the unfortunate Marie Antoinette.

The road from Paris to Versailles is delightful, and the elegant houses along the banks of the Seine, form a picturesque and beautiful appearance: a gloom, however, insensibly stole over our minds as we approached the royal residence, the grandeur of which seems departed.

My dear uncle, at parting, cautioned me against travelling in vain; and on my assuring him I should observe every thing curious and worthy of remark, he explained himself by saying, that was not quite sufficient, unless I made myself mistress of some

historical events. Know then, dear uncle, that I studied the history of this palace before I went to view it. The land on which it is erected, was purchased by Louis XII. of John de Soissy, in 1627; but Louis XIV. was the founder of this admirable piece of architecture, who commenced the work in 1673, and the buildings were completed during the ministry of the great Colbert, in 1680.

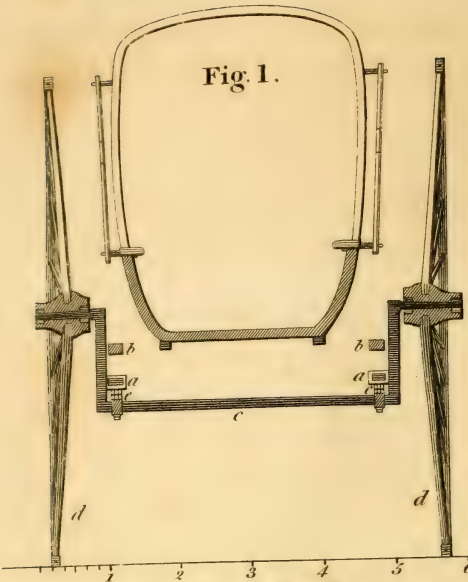
The gardens were laid out by the famous Le Nostre, and the exquisite paintings in the Chateau, are by Le Brun. The outside view of the palace, from the North Terrace, is extremely grand and imposing; four fine bronze figures are represented leaning against the front of the building, Silenus, Antinous, the Pythian Apollo, and Bacchus. In entering the saloon of Hercules, the spectator is struck dumb with admiration: it is sixty-four feet in length, and fifty-four broad; the ceiling is a fine representation of Olympus, with the apotheosis and labors of Hercules: that little statue of Cupid, of which we have been told so much, and which formerly stood in the pavillion of Love in Le Petit Trianon, is now transferred to this saloon, where it is placed in the centre.

The second apartment is the Hall of Plenty, adorned with appropriate emblems, and fine paintings; next is the Hall of Diana, the fourth of Mars, the fifth of Mercury, adorned with a profusion of pictures; and the Hall of Apollo is next, where, on the ceiling, that God is seen, seated in his car, and adorned with all his attributes. The next is the Saloon of War, with an equestrian statue of Mars, twelve feet high; but as the God was made to represent that monarch, Louis XV. who was any thing but a warrior, the people, during the rage of freedom, thought proper to leave the God without a head.

In our progress through the interior of the palace, every thing appeared to remind us of the instability of earthly grandeur; the painted ceilings are faded, the tapestry in many places torn, and the golden cornices discoloured: we looked, with many a mingled reflection of regret and indignation, at the wing which the soldiers occupied, during the turbulent scenes of the revolution; nor was it with less, though with a different kind of sensation, we beheld the upper tower, where Francis I. drew his last breath.

(To be continued.)

Fig. 1.



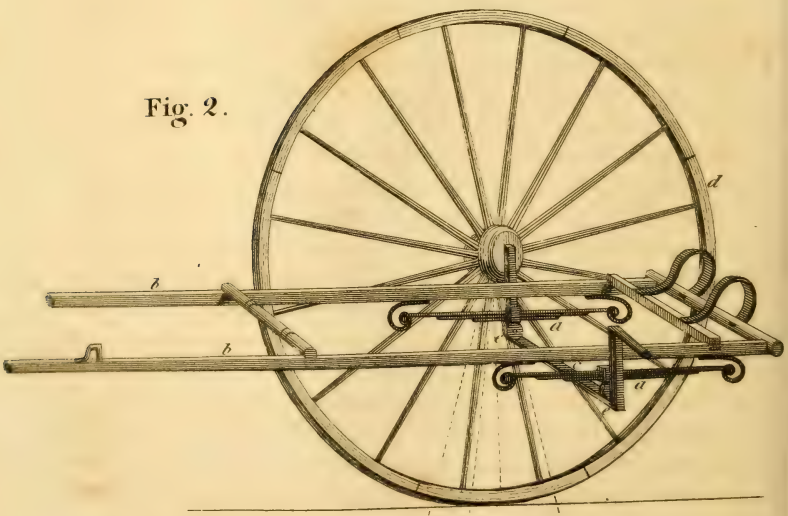
Scale 3/8 inch to a foot.

A Vertical Section;

through the centre of the Axle, wheels and body.

a.a. Cradle-springs.
b.b. Shafts.
c. Axle.
d.d. Wheels.
e.e. Joints.

Fig. 2.



Perspective view: the left wheel taken off.

MECHANIC ARTS.

The Editor solicits the indulgence of his readers, for the following notice of an invention of his own. It would have given place to any other, had any one been offered in season for accompanying it with the neccessary engraving—and ever hereafter, other men shall have priority in the articles that may be offered for this department.

The following extracts from a pamphlet, lately published, and which are, perhaps, too prolix for this work, will, with the plate annexed, explain the principles of this invention, and enable the public to decide pretty well on its merits.

Cursory observations on the ordinary construction of WHEEL-CARRIAGES: *with an attempt to point out their defects, and to show how they may be improved.*

REASON, science, and philosophy, having long since taught every body that high wheels for carriages move much easier than low ones, the fact, as it will not be questioned, needs no examination here. That it is so is beyond doubt. Various attempts have been made to avail ourselves of the advantage of considerably higher wheels; and we accordingly see that, wherever it can be done without a counterbalancing inconvenience, wheels of a greater height are substituted for the lower ones of former times. If still higher ones than we now see have not been used, it is solely because no plan has been devised to remedy the inconvenience of too high a line of draught for the horse, and the increased height of the load or body of the carriage. For it is also as generally believed that the line of draught should be, what may be termed a lifting-line; that is, that the horse's breast should be rather higher than the level of the line of draught. This is undoubtedly correct, and I believe there ought, for his ease, and to enable him to exert his full power, to be a greater difference than there commonly is in practice: this however, would require the wheels to be still smaller. To all these difficulties and objections to the use of high wheels, we may add another, and that of commanding influence in the construction of pleasure, and other carriages designed for rapid motion. That as we extend the height of the wheels, we increase the exposure to upsetting, and the danger attending it: For as the higher the wheel, the longer is the lever on which its motion acts; and as the axle, on which the load rests is necessarily in the centre of the wheel, it is evident that the higher the wheel the greater is the liability to upset.

Such, I believe, are the reasons why the wheels of carriages ought, for the ease of the horse and for the ease of the rider, to

be made much higher than those in common use; and such the objections to any increase of height. Perhaps it may be admitted with propriety, that the height of wheels now employed, is about that medium which best combines every practicable advantage with the fewest disadvantages. But, when I say this, I mean to be understood as saying it of the present mode of constructing wheel-carriages with straight axles, which necessarily raise the load above the centre of the wheels.

Suppose it practicable to increase the height of the wheels of a Chaise, for instance, to any desirable extent, and that not only without any inconvenience to the draught, or the height of the load, but with an actual advantage from the manner of appending it. This would readily be pronounced the grand desideratum, while, as it never has been done, it would, perhaps, as readily be pronounced impossible.

(To be continued.)

The following Presentment of the Grand Jury, of the City and County of New-York, well merits the serious attention of the friends of morality and religion. Many of the evils which it points out, are as extensive as the State, and pervade every quarter, in some degree. What effect would it have if the grand Inquest of other counties, should inquire, on their oaths, for similar evils?

City and county of New-York.

COURT OF SESSIONS—MAY TERM.—1815.

THE PEOPLE.

The jurors of the people of the state of New-York, in and for the body of the city and county of New-York, having gone through the usual business for which they were summoned by this court, cannot leave their places until they have called the attention of the court to a few cases of grievance and public nuisance, as calling aloud for legislative interference, if the arm of the law and the numerous ordinances of the corporation of the city are not found sufficiently strong to check the evils of which they complain.

On their oaths, they present, as a public nuisance, the unbounded licentiousness of the black and colored women of this city, who are living in a state of debauchery and idleness—strolling about our public walks and principal streets at all hours after sunset—using obscene and infamous language, to the great shame of our city, and the example of others—offending the ears of every decent person, by the repetition of profane oaths and vulgar epithets—

and more especially on the sabbath evenings, crowding and jostling against the peaceable citizens of this city, to the great injury of the people of this state, their peace and dignity.

The jurors, aforesaid, need not to remind the court, that the major part of the offences on your calendar, and calling for your daily judgment, originate from those vagrant and licentious women, who not only have their haunts of assignations with their own color, but who, we believe, are the vile instruments of seduction and ruin to many of the youths and unfortunate white females that are so frequently arraigned before your tribunal.

They likewise present, in their character of jurors aforesaid, and under their oath, as a public nuisance, the growing and incalculable evil of those numerous and multiplied TIPPLING SHOPS, and petty groceries, *who*, under the *too free* sanction of our laws, obtain a license to vend liquor, and a few articles of necessity, to the poor, at exorbitant prices, and frequently of a degenerate quality, and do shamefully abuse the freedom granted, by keeping open their shops, not only each working day, but all hours at night, and, in many cases, on the day set apart by our religion and laws to be observed as a day of rest, free from traffic as from labor—thereby harboring and encouraging the drunkard in his drunkenness, and enticing the idle and the vicious to spend their time and money, to the great injury of their families, and against the peace and dignity of the people of this state.

The jurors aforesaid, for the city and county aforesaid, do further present, as a nuisance, the rude and disorderly behaviour of the coachmen, or hack drivers, now allowed to stand at the places assigned by the Corporation, who are constantly in the habit of leaving their horses without reins, snapping their whips, crying aloud to peaceable citizens, and assaulting each other, to the great danger and disturbance of the good people of this state.

PETER A. SCHENCK, Foreman.

THE BOUNDARY LINE,

Which is to be settled by Commissioners, between the United States and Canada agreeably to the late Treaty, has excited a good deal of controversy among the Newspaper Mathematicians of the south—and a degree of interest in the public mind fully equal to the magnitude and importance of the subject. Whatever may be the difficulty of determining the true point of lat. 45°, or of tracing the parallel of that line, in the minds of those who have been writing about it, I apprehend no great difficulty in this

matter will be found by the Commissioners. At the same time I take it upon me to say that the late supposed boundary is incorrect by several miles: and that, at least, one of the late commissioners was aware of this at the time of running that line. Nations, in respect to boundaries, too often conduct like those individuals who leave the final settlement of their land-marks, till the land becomes worth contending about: and when instead of miles, they sustain a furious controversy for inches!

LAKE GEORGE,

A view of which is given in this number, is in the northern part of the state of New-York, principally in the counties of Warren and Washington, from sixty-two to near one hundred miles north of Albany. It is about thirty-three miles in length, and from two to near four miles in width, and discharges northward into Lake Champlain at Ticonderoga. The water of this lake is remarkably pure, and it abounds with a variety of very fine fish for the angler. Trout, and salmon trout, of a large size, are taken in abundance, with many other kinds of fish. The country around this lake is very romantic, and the mountains that border it are some of the highest in this state. The View embraces the ruins of Fort George, (at the south end of the lake,) the remains of some of its old military houses, the village of Caldwell, and of the lake, for a distance of about fourteen miles. Strangers, who visit the watering places of Saratoga county, are well paid for their trouble by extending their ride by Glen's Falls on the Hudson, to Lake George.

Note. A friend, for whose judgment, on most occasions, I have the highest regard, happening to cast his eye on the above article, insists on my taking occasion to refer my readers to the Gazetteer of New-York for a more full account of the Lake, &c. 'and let one thing help another,' in the true spirit of trade. From his judgment I appeal, and submit the matter to the public. ED.

Method of Manufacturing Horn in China, as a Substitute for Glass.

THE horn generally manufactured by the Chinese is from the horns of sheep and goats, and is considered as a good substitute for glass. The usual method of managing them is, to bend them by immersion in boiling hot water, after which they are cut open and flattened; they then easily scale, or are separated into two or three thin laminæ, or plates. In order that these plates should be made to join, they are exposed to the penetrating effect of

steam, by which they are rendered perfectly soft. By applying the edges immediately to each other, and pressing them, they instantly adhere, and form one substance. It is a contrivance little known elsewhere but in China.

FOREIGN EVENTS.

Letter from the Emperor of France, to the Sovereigns.

SIR, MY BROTHER,

During the last month, you will have learned my return to the shores of France, my entry into Paris, and the departure of the Bourbon family—the true cause of these events ought also to be understood by your majesty. They are the works of an irresistible power; the works of the unanimous will of a great nation, that knows its duties and its rights. The dynasty which power gave to the French people, was not calculated for them—the Bourbons would neither adopt their sentiments nor their manners—it became necessary that France should be freed from them—her voice called for a deliverer; the expectations which had resolved me to the greatest sacrifices, had been frustrated. I am come—and from the point where I touched the shore, the love of my people has borne me even to the bosom of my capital. The first wish of my heart is to repay so much affection, by preserving an honorable state of peace. The re-establishment of the Imperial throne was necessary to the happiness of the French; my greatest desire is at the same time to render it useful in securing the repose of Europe. Sufficient glory has by turns adorned the banners of the different nations—the vicissitude of things has also caused the greatest misfortune to follow the greatest success. The finest *arena* is now opened to the sovereigns, and I am the first to descend into it. After exhibiting to the world the drama of great battles, it will be better to know no other rivalship than the benefits of peace—no other strife than the sacred strife for the benefit of mankind. France is pleased to proclaim with candor this noble end of all her wishes. Jealous of her independence, the immutable principle of her politics shall be the most absolute respect for the independence of other nations. If these are, as I feel well assured, the personal sentiments of your majesty, general repose is secure for a long time; and justice, made the barrier of the different powers, will be sufficient to secure the frontiers.

I avail myself with eagerness, &c.

Paris, April 4, 1815. NAPOLEON.

PROCLAMATION OF LOUIS XVIII.

Frankfort, April 2.

Louis, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre, to those of my children who shall see these presents, greeting.

He who has deceived you for ten years is come to deceive you again. Fifteen days have hardly passed by, since by treason he seated himself upon the throne to which your wishes have called me, and already Europe knows it, and Europe indignant, advances to annihilate him! She advances, Frenchmen! Her innumerable phalanxes will speedily pass our frontiers; but Europe, is not your enemy. I have reconciled her to you. Henceforth you will only see in these strangers, formerly so terrible, generous allies, who come to aid you in throwing off the yoke of oppression. All these soldiers of Europe march under the same flag, and that is the white one.

Enfeebled by age and twenty-five years of misfortunes, I will not say unto them, like my grand father: *rally under my white plume!* but I will follow them near to the field of honor. Frenchmen! a vain illusion of glory spread among you, has carried you away: my arms are open to you, come cast yourselves into them. I will believe you never quitted them. Frenchmen! who is he among you who will bear arms against me! I am not your

enemy, I am your king, I am brother of Louis XVI. I come like Henry IV. to fight and conquer a new league; I come to bring you peace and honor.

(Signed) LOUIS.

The Duke of Feltre, Minister of War.

Paris, April 15.

Nothing demonstrates more the indefinite liberty of the press and the power of the imperial government, than what we read in the public papers. The proclamations of Louis XVIII. are alongside of the decisions of the emperor, often without comment, without reflection; but these proclamations resemble the effeminate and impotent efforts of the aged Priam—they produce no effect. In permitting their publication, the emperor proves that he is above all fear, and that he has a just confidence in the French people, who have freely chosen him, and who wish him only for a sovereign. Those who persuade the Count de Lille to print these proclamations, and who do not apprize him of the ridiculousness of comparing himself without ceasing to Henry IV. understand his interests very little. In fact, what resemblance can there be between Henry IV. who spent his life in combating within and without the enemies of his country, and Louis XVIII. who, from the treaty of Pilnitz to this moment has been always seeking to excite them against her.

A Decree of the emperor Napoleon dated 28th March last, inserted in the Moniteur of the 9th of this month, recalls to their flags all the officers and soldiers who have quitted the army for whatever reason, under the solemn promise that *as soon as actual peace shall be confirmed, those who shall have rejoined the army in consequence of the decree, shall obtain leave to return to their families*. The minister of general police, Fouche, duke of Otranto, in announcing this decree to the prefect, says, "We are at peace, the Emperor has solemnly proclaimed his intention to maintain the treaty of Paris:" What then is the object of those hostile preparations beyond our frontiers? When it is our determination to take no concern in the interior arrangements of neighboring states, will those states pretend to the right of directing our domestic affairs? Is it because they are determined to govern France, by menaces, by arms, and by masters of their choice?

"And what kings, what nations can perceive, without terror, such an unheard of violation of independence and the principles which form the safety of all nations and all governments! What people, if they are not beaten down by a long servitude, can consent to receive a monarch from the hands of strangers? Our fathers have seen the Stuarts fatiguing the pity of the courts of Europe, and shamefully begging their aid. They saw England set at defiance the menaces and the arms of the continent, and escape by this last act of courage from civil troubles, from the poniards of a tyrannical hypocrite, and terminate a revolution which had, like ours, its extravagances, its errors, and the want of a new dynasty.

"Shall France be more unfortunate? Shall a humiliation, of which we do not find an example in the history of any free people, be reserved for her? Shall she suffer any to dictate laws to her, when she has the right and the power of rejecting every species of yoke? When 300,000 warriors, experienced in battle, and 2,000,000 of citizens, are ready to march at the voice of the country? No! The throne to which the wishes of four millions of men have called the Emperor, this throne, strengthened by so many treaties, made illustrious by so many sacrifices, consecrated by religion, can never become the prey of conquerors.

"The projects conceived at the first moment of alarm, and in the uncertainty of events, will not be brought to any result, and will have no success, when Europe shall learn that the Bourbons can receive no other succor than that of hospitality; when she shall know that France, finishing, within the circle of her acknowledged limits, under the faith of treaties and the protection of the law of nations, the grand work of her revolution, shows herself unanimous in the generous design of resisting oppression and repulsing unjust aggressions." (Signed) The Duke of OTRANTO,

Minister of the General Police.

STATE PAPER.

NEW TREATY OF THE ALLIED POWERS.

In the name of the holy and undivided Trinity :

THEIR majesties, the Emperor of all the Russias, the Emperor of Austria, the King of Prussia, and the King of the united kingdom of Great-Britain and Ireland, considering the consequences which the entrance of Bonaparte into France, and the present situation of that kingdom, may have with respect to the security of Europe, have determined, in these weighty circumstances, to carry into effect the principles consecrated in the treaty of Chaumont. They have therefore agreed, by a solemn treaty, mutually signed by each of the four powers, to renew the engagement that they will defend the so happily restored order of things in Europe, against all violation, and to adopt the most effectual measures for carrying this engagement into effect, and also to give it that necessary extension which existing circumstances imperiously demand.

[Here follow the appointments, in the usual form, of the different plenipotentiaries, whose names are undersigned.]

Art. 1.---The high contracting powers solemnly engage to unite the resources of their respective states for the maintenance of the treaty of peace concluded at Paris on the 30th of May, 1814, as well as that of the Congress of Vienna---to carry into full effect the dispositions contained in these treaties---inviolably to observe their ratified and subscribed agreements, according to their full import---to defend them against every attack, and especially against the projects of Napoleon Bonaparte. Towards this end, they bind themselves, should the king of France desire it, and in the spirit of the declaration issued on the 13th of March, with common consent and mutual agreement, to bring to justice all such as may have already joined or shall hereafter join the party of Napoleon, in order to compel him to relinquish his projects, and to render him incapable in future of disturbing the tranquility of Europe and the general peace, under the protection of which the rights, the freedom, and the independence of nations, have been established and secured.

2---Although so great and salutary an object does not permit that the means destined to its attainment should be limited, and although the high contracting powers have resolved to devote to this object all such resources as they can, in their respective situations, dispose of ; yet they have nevertheless agreed, that every one of them shall constantly have in the field 150,000 men complete, of whom at least one tenth shall be cavalry, with a proportionate artillery, (not reckoning garrisons) and to employ them in active and united service against the common enemy.

3---The high contracting parties solemnly engage not to lay down their arms but in agreement with each other, nor until the object of the war assigned in the first article of the present treaty shall have been attained---nor until Bonaparte shall be wholly and completely deprived of the power of exciting disturbances, and of being able to renew his attempts to obtain the chief power of France.

4---As the present treaty principally relates to the present circumstances, the engagements in the treaty of Chaumont, and particularly that contained in the 16th article, shall again recover their full force, as soon as the present object shall be attained.

5---Every thing relating to the command of the allied armies, the maintenance of the same, &c. shall be regulated by a special convention.

6---The high contracting parties shall have the right reciprocally to accredit with the generals, commanders of their armies, officers, who shall be allowed the liberty of corresponding with their governments, in order to inform them of the military events, and of all that relates to the operation of the armies.

7---As the engagements entered into by the present treaty have for object to maintain the general peace, the high contracting powers agree to invite all the powers of Europe to accede to them.

8---As the present treaty is simply and solely entered into with a view to support France and every other threatened country against the attempts of Bonaparte and his adherents, his most christian majesty shall be specially invited to accede thereto---and in the event of his majesty's claiming the force specified in article 2, he shall make known what assistance his circumstances enable him to contribute towards the object of the present treaty.

9---The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratification exchanged within the period of one month, or sooner if possible.

In testimony whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed and sealed the same.

(LS) Count RASAMOWSKY,
(LS) Count NESSELRODE,
(LS) Prince METTERNICH,
(LS) Baron WESSENBERG,
(LS) Prince HARDENBERG,
(LS) Baron HUMBOLDT,
(LS) WELLINGTON.

At Vienna, the 25th of March, 1815.

London, April 24.---Admiral Gantheume has assumed the command of the Toulon fleet.

The Conscription Laws are, it is said, again acted upon in France.

A strong Channel fleet will be immediately collected, as a fleet of observation, under the command of Lord Keith.

The publication of the abdication of Maria Louisa is expected from day to day, but has not yet taken place.

Paris, April 7.—The plan of the new Constitution was finished this evening.

Deeply deploring the event, we wait for the official or authenticated details of the late horrid massacre of the American Prisoners, at Dartmoor, in England, when we shall present them to our readers.

New-York, June 10, 1815. The Cartel ship Brunswick, with 438 American prisoners, has just arrived from England. A ship load also arrived at Boston, on the 7th inst.: six others either had, or were about to sail, with prisoners for the U. States.

TO THE PUBLIC.

Owing to a want of experience, in forming the adjustment of parts, we have not been able to present this number of the American Magazine in the form that we proposed, nor to embrace in it that variety which we intended. In our next, we hope to give a greater variety, and to bring the arrangement more into system. Our MONTHLY RETROSPECT, is entirely crowded out, and the department of FOREIGN EVENTS, is far less than we intended.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

X., and O., are invited to remember us often. S., of B., has our thanks. 'Duchess County,' is on file. Juvenis, is under consideration; and we advise him to try his pen on other subjects. H., on the economy of caloric, and the best means of warming Rooms and Houses, both writes and reasons well. He will find a private communication soon, through the channel that he proposes. V. M. Albaniensis, and V. S., were received too late for this number. Agricola, has taken exactly the department that we wished to see him fill, and we greet him most heartily, though he came too late for this month. The promise of S., of H., to remember us sometimes, we well remember. J. S. C. is received: Galena, 64 per cent. of lead. 'A Manufacturer,' shall be attended to. Is Merino native, or imported? P. M., at Cincinnati, will please continue his attention.

To the Editor of the American Magazine.

ONONDAGA, MAY 15, 1815.

SIR,

IF the following Observations are of any utility, they are at your service, and should you desire it, I may send some more.

ONONDAGHARA.

Thermometrical Observations made near Manlius, County of Onondaga, December 1814.

December.	Time of observation			Course of the Winds.			REMARKS, MORNING---NOON, and NIGHT.
	Sun rising.	12 o'clock.	Sun setting.	Sunrise.	12 o'clock.	Sun setting.	
1	28	30	27	N.	—	—	Snowed moderately all day, (two inches deep.)
2	31	33	30	S.	—	—	Overcast, high wind and some snow.
3	10	16	14	N.W.	—	—	Cold high wind, some snow.
4	0	32	27	S. W.	—	—	Fair and light wind, remarkably pleasant day.
5	27	31	33	S. W.	—	S.	Overcast, „ clouds and sunshine.
6	36	40	40	S.	—	—	Overcast, „ likely for rain
7	40	40	37	S. W.	N.	N.W.	Rain, cloudy, „ cloudy & pleasant
8	32	30	33	S.	N.	N.	Overcast, snow, „
9	34	28	25	N.W.	—	—	Snow, „ sleet.
10	22	34	30	N.W.	S. W.	—	Overcast, snows very fast, overcast
11	28	34	32	N.W.	—	—	Fair, overcast, snow.
12	25	30	25	N.W.	—	W.	Overcast, „ snows very fast.
13	26	29	26	W.	—	—	Overcast, „ „
14	20	22	20	W.	—	—	Mist, sleet, overcast, fair at evening.
15	18	25	28	calm.	N.W.	—	Overcast, „ „ very light chilly wind.
16	14	32	29	W.	W.	S.W.	Fair & light wind, „ mist, trees cov. with ice.
17	31	41	36	S.	—	—	Overcast, „ thaws fast, and misty, „
18	34	36	32	N.W.	W.	—	Overcast & thick mist, overcast, cloudy.
19	32	30	26	N.W.	—	—	Fine snow, overcast, cloudy.
20	18	18	16	N.W.	—	—	Overcast, „ „ a little snow fallen.
21	0	12	12	N.W.	—	—	Overcast & flights of snow, „ cold & high wind
22	18	28	26	N.W.	S. W.	S.	Cloudy, „ overcast and strong wind.
23	28	34	32	S.	—	—	Overcast, fair, cloudy and strong wind
24	24	20	15	N.W.	—	—	Overcast with snow, overcast, „
25	12	25	20	N.W.	—	—	Cloudy, „ and pleasant, cloudy.
26	24	26	25	calm.	S.E.	—	Fair and pleasant „ „
27	19	31	30	S.E.	S.	S.	Overcast, " and strong wind, overcast.
28	33	40	32	S.	—	—	Freezing rain, rain, rain and thick mist.
29	32	34	32	calm.	N.W.	—	Mist and snow, mist, mist and snow.
30	19	20	18	N.W.	—	—	Snowed moderately, overcast, „
31	8	24	21	N.W.	—	—	Cloudy and flights of snow, overcast.

This month has been very healthy. The snow is now about six inches deep.

NOTE. We thank our attentive Correspondent, and take this occasion to invite a continuance of his favors;—and to express our wish to receive observations of this kind from as many of our friends as can make it convenient to furnish them. EDITOR

The average state of the atmosphere from 1802 to 1808 inclusive, in London, is shown in the following table.

	Average height of the Barometer.	*Average height of the Thermometer.*	*Depth of rain in inches.*
1802	29.706	50.38	23.35
3	29.778	50.31	26.39
4	29.873	50.65	34.00
5	29.864	48.00	25.00
6	29.815	51.77	42.00
7	29.746	51.66	26.00
8	29.724	50.60	30.50
Av. for 7 years,	29.786	50,48	29.62

Albany, 6 *Mo.* 3, 1815, 5h. afternoon. At 3 precisely, we had an interesting storm of hail and rain, with a few vivid streams of lightning. The hail fell fast during six minutes, and the hail-stones were from near ½ inch to ¾ and ⅞ diameter. The most of them very hard and diaphanous, but many of the largest had a white opake centre, and on cutting them open a small cavity was found in or near the middle. The cloud gathered around the summits of the mountains in the S. W. and burst upon us very suddenly, with a strong wind from that quarter. The wind had been southerly through the day, and the air warm and humid---the thermometer at 70°. The atmosphere is still loaded with vapor, though it has ceased to rain---the thermometer 62°.

At 4, I took the opportunity to test the correctness of the thermometer, with which I shall record the temperatures occasionally for this Work. After 3 minutes immersion in a pint bowl of the hail that had just fallen, it indicated 32°; and on adding fine salt, it fell to zero, thus determining its correctness. The hail was now congealed to a solid mass, and the bowl was covered on the outside with a beautiful coat of radiated white frost. In this situation, a white, dense vapor, rolled over the brim of the bowl, and descended in curls to the floor. The whole appearances were interesting, and my readers will have the goodness to excuse this minuteness, to which I invite other observers, solely for the purpose of a desirable accuracy in similar observations.

During the storm, a sloop, lying at the Watering Place, was struck by the lightning, which descended to the hold and ruined the mast, without injuring any body, though there were more than twenty persons on board! A truly Providential escape.

The greatest heat of May, was on Sabbath the 28th at 4 P. M., 89½°;—in the sun, 161°. The wind was S. on the river, but the clouds ran from N. W. all day. How is this? The greatest heat of last summer, was on the 2d of July, 89°, and the winds were precisely as above. Both these *high* extremes were followed by *low* ones, and within 30 hours the temperature fell 27°.

ORIGINAL ANECDOTE.

The peculiar pertinency of a good joke, gives, to the wit displayed on these little occasions, all its value. The following anecdote will lose much of its force by this manner of relation. M. can relate it to the life.

W. and C. two auctioneers, were remarkably disproportioned in their stature. C. was a mere dwarf, and W. very tall. At a public sale, C. mounted a hogshead partly filled with Scotch snuff in bladders, which stood on one end. As he was repeating one-and-ten, one-and-ten, going, going, going, gentlemen, the head gave way, and C. descended out of sight—gone, says W.—and the sneezing of C. left no doubt of the fact, for though out of sight, he was not out of hearing. The effect on the crowd was indescribable.

THE

NEW-YORK REVIEW.

JUNE, 1825.

ART. I.—*Hadad, a Dramatic Poem. By* JAMES A. HILLHOUSE, *author of "Percy's Masque," and "The Judgment."* New-York. Bliss & White. 1825. pp. 208.

THOUGH the author of Hadad has chosen to give his work the more general denomination of a dramatic poem, it has all the incidents and characteristics of a tragedy. It is continued through the proper number of acts, is written with a sufficient regard to dramatic unities, and is furnished with a reasonable number and variety of characters. It has a regular plot and catastrophe, and the personages are all finally disposed of according to the fairest rules of poetical justice. Perhaps, however, the author was prevented from calling it a tragedy, by supposing that the nature of the subject, and the introduction of supernatural agents into the plot, would exclude it from the stage. Let it be a dramatic poem, then, since the author chooses to call it so—at all events, we are ready to acknowledge that it is a very good one.

The story of this drama is founded on the rebellion of Absalom. This is a very interesting event in the annals of the Jewish nation, and the actors in it were some of the most important personages of scripture history. How far subjects drawn from the sacred writings are proper for narrative or dramatic poetry, is a question about which there has been much discussion. It has been urged, among other objections to this use of such subjects, that it is a sort of unhallowed mingling of fiction with the pure truth of the sacred records, the tendency of which is to impair our reverence for the history of our religion, and our respect for the lessons which that history was intended to inculcate. We must say, however, that, with all proper deference for these scruples, we cannot help thinking them entirely unnecessary.

The human personages mentioned in sacred history must be considered as actual human beings, subject to the common passions and infirmities of our race, and, for the most part, to the ordinary influences of good and ill fortune. It cannot surely be

impious to suppose that what we are told of them in scripture is not the whole of this history. We are not forbidden to dwell upon what we may conceive to be their emotions, in the various passages of their lives which are recorded, nor to fancy the particulars of those events which are related only in general terms, nor even to imagine them engaged in adventures of which no account has come down to us. So long as this is done in such a manner as to correspond with what is related of their characters and actions in holy writ, we cannot see that any thing is done to offend the most delicate conscience. We cannot see that it has the least tendency to weaken the impression produced upon us by the narratives of scripture; on the contrary, it seems to us, that by leading the mind to dwell upon them more intently, it will naturally deepen and confirm it. This field ought at least to be as free to the poet as to the pulpit orator. Nobody thinks of passing a censure upon the latter, when, suffering his imagination to kindle, and his heart to become warm with his subject, he expatiates upon the fraternal affection of Joseph, or amplifies the filial devotion of Ruth.

It is obvious, that the form in which the poem is cast can make no difference with the principle in this case. It is immaterial whether it be dramatic or narrative, as long as it is not made the subject of scenic representation; for no greater liberty is taken with scripture history in the one case than in the other.

We are aware, however, that it may be further said, that the natural effect of these subjects upon the mind of the writer is not such as to ensure the free and happy exertion of his powers. The habitual reverence with which we regard them, awes and represses the imagination. The dread of taking improper liberties with his subject, and the fear of offending the scruples of others, act as shackles upon the invention of the writer; and, amidst all these influences, there is danger that he will rest in common-places, and that his work will be tame and spiritless. There is great difficulty, also, in awakening, in the mind of the reader, a strong interest in the characters and fortunes of the personages upon whom the action of the piece depends. This is a consequence of the extraordinary dispensation of which they were the subjects. There is something in the idea of mortals taken into so intimate a relation with the Divine Being, which rebukes and repels earthly sympathy. These are difficulties—serious difficulties; but they are not insurmountable. They render the work of the poet arduous—not impossible. The imagination may still soar high, and the invention act vigorously, in the permitted direction; and that sympathy which we are slow to yield, may still be wrung from us by the truth and

force with which his scenes and situations are brought home to our hearts. The great epic of Milton was written in defiance of the highest degree of these difficulties, yet it is the noblest poem in our language; nor is his Paradise Regained unworthy to be the last work of so great a man. His Samson Agonistes, full of grand sentiments and strains of high philosophy, seems to owe its want of dramatic interest, not to any inherent defect in the subject, but to the cold model of the Grecian tragedy after which it was composed. Cowley appears to have discontinued the writing of his Davideis because it was not worth finishing; but neither would it have been, had the subject been taken from profane history. In our time, Byron, in his dramatic poems, founded on subjects taken from the scriptures, has emancipated himself, as might be expected, even from the most salutary of those restraints which their sacredness imposes on the mind. Along with many interesting situations, and much impassioned sentiment, they contain no small proportion of indecency and blasphemy. His impiety, however, is by no means the consequence of his choice of subjects; his choice of subjects only renders his impiety the more palpable and revolting. Moore, in his Loves of the Angels, is apparently too little in earnest to be deeply interesting; he dallies too idly with his subject, and his pretty amatory language has an unnatural sound in the mouths of celestials. In the instance of Montgomery, however, it should seem that a sacred subject has imparted, to a genius of no great original power, an unwonted spring and vigour, a deeper pathos, and a finer play of imagination. His World before the Flood we think altogether the best of his larger poems. The Sacred Dramas of Milman are admitted to be superior to any thing else which he has written. They certainly possess great tragic effect, and though composed with little skill in the delineation of character, and overloaded with ambitious ornament, are yet much sought after, and read with interest and pleasure. It is owing, we suspect, to some other cause than the chilling influence of such subjects upon the powers of the writers, or their want of attraction over the minds of readers, that the Exodiad of Cumberland is forgotten, that the Conquest of Canaan reposes in the dust of the bookseller's shelves, and that the Sacred Dramas of Miss Hannah More have found little favor in the eyes of the light age for which they were written.

In looking over the names of those English poets who have made use of the materials furnished by the sacred writings, it will appear that, generally speaking, wherever great powers of mind have been brought to the work, their exertion has been

attended with success; and that those who have written bad poems, owe their failure quite as much to the want of talent as to the unfortunate choice of a subject. Thus we have something better than mere theory to guide us in this discussion. The very history of our literature proves that these materials may be converted to the purposes of poetry, and that although perhaps not the most attractive in their nature, nor the best adapted to the favorable exertion of ordinary talents, they are yet capable of being turned to good account in the hands of a master.

If we look at Hadad with a view of seeing in what manner the author has surmounted the difficulties arising from his choice of a subject, we shall be apt to form a high estimate of his powers. Whatever constraint these difficulties may have put upon his invention, he has certainly contrived with great art to remove all appearance of embarrassment from the conduct of the fable, and has constructed his plot, and sketched his characters, with all the felicity and apparent freedom of one who was dealing with a subject, which he was at liberty to mould into any shape that might suit his fancy. Indeed, if we compare this work with Percy's Masque, his earlier dramatic effort, we shall perceive an essential degree of superiority in many of the important qualities of dramatic writing. Every thing about it is better calculated to command and fix the attention, the incidents are more varied and striking, and where there is declamation, it is at least spirited declamation. The characters are more forcibly drawn, and more skilfully distinguished, and there is a deeper infusion of passion—the soul of the drama. The diction, also, though preserving throughout the same character of manliness and vigor, which characterizes the former work, is yet pruned from its defects, and rendered more unaffected, flexible, and idiomatic.

Hadad, a principal actor in the fable of this drama, is a son of the king of Syria, detained as an hostage at the court of David. At least, it is in this character that he is first introduced to us, though he afterwards turns out to be a very different sort of personage. He becomes the friend and bosom counsellor of Absalom, and,—as in every tragedy, love is of course an important, if not essential ingredient,—the lover of his daughter. He incites Absalom to rebel against his father, corrupts the loyalty of Mephibosheth, and endeavours to shake the faith of Tamar, (for such is the name of the daughter of Absalom,) in the religion of her country. There is great beauty in the following dialogue, which is made to introduce

an insidious eulogy of Hadad upon the beautiful Syrian mythology, and an attempt to make her doubt the goodness of the Being whom she worshipped :

"*The garden of* Absalom's *house on Mount Zion, near the palace, overlooking the city.* Tamar *sitting by a fountain.*

Tam. How aromatic evening grows! The flowers,
And spicy shrubs, exhale like onycha ;
Spikenard and henna emulate in sweets.
Blest hour! which He, who fashioned it so fair,
So softly glowing, so contemplative,
Hath set, and sanctified to look on man.
And lo! the smoke of evening sacrifice
Ascends from out the tabernacle. Heaven
Accept the expiation, and forgive
This day's offences!—Ha! the wonted strain,
Precursor of his coming!—Whence can this—
It seems to flow from some unearthly hand—

Enter Hadad.

Had. Does beauteous Tamar view, in this clear fount,
Herself, or heaven?
Tam. Nay, Hadad, tell me whence
Those sad, mysterious sounds.
Had. What sounds, dear Princess?
Tam. Surely, thou knowest; and now I almost think
Some spiritual creature waits on thee.
Had. I heard no sounds, but such as evening sends
Up from the city to these quiet shades ;
A blended murmur sweetly harmonizing
With flowing fountains, feathered minstrelsy,
And voices from the hills.
Tam. The sounds I mean,
Floated like mournful music round my head,
From unseen fingers.
Had. When?
Tam. Now, as thou camest.
Had. 'Tis but thy fancy, wrought
To ecstacy ; or else thy grandsire's harp
Resounding from his tower at eventide.
I've lingered to enjoy its solemn tones,
Till the broad moon, that rose o'er Olivet,
Stood listening in the zenith; yea, have deemed
Viols and heavenly voices answered him.
Tam. But these—
Had. Were we in Syria, I might say
The Naiad of the fount, or some sweet Nymph,
The goddess of these shades, rejoiced in thee,
And gave thee salutations; but I fear
Judah would call me infidel to Moses.
Tam. How like my fancy! When these strains precede
Thy steps, as oft they do, I love to think
Some gentle being who delights in us

Is hovering near, and warns me of thy coming;
But they are dirge-like.
Had. Youthful fantasy,
Attuned to sadness, makes them seem so, lady.
So evening's charming voices, welcomed ever,
As signs of rest and peace;—the watchman's call,
The closing gates, the Levite's mellow trump
Announcing the returning moon, the pipe
Of swains, the bleat, the bark, the housing-bell,
Send melancholy to a drooping soul.
Tam. But how delicious are the pensive dreams
That steal upon the fancy at their call!
Had. Delicious to behold the world at rest.
Meek labour wipes his brow, and intermits
The curse, to clasp the younglings of his cot;
Herdsmen, and shepherds, fold their flocks—and hark!
What merry strains they send from Olivet!
The jar of life is still; the city speaks
In gentle murmurs; voices chime with lutes
Waked in the streets and gardens; loving pairs
Eye the red west in one another's arms;
And nature, breathing dew and fragrance, yields
A glimpse of happiness, which He, who formed
Earth and the stars, had power to make eternal."—pp. 33—36.

There is a very pretty and well imagined scene, in which Hadad endeavours to extract from the youthful Solomon the secret of his having received the royal unction to qualify him for being the successor of David on the throne of Israel,—and another of admirable splendor and pathos, in which the Syrian discloses his mysterious knowledge mysteriously obtained, of the nature and occupations of the spiritual beings shut out from heaven, who inhabit the air and the chambers of the earth. In the mean time, Hadad, in order to confirm Absalom in the design of seizing his father's crown, contrives a meeting between him and Balaam-Haddon, a Chaldean soothsayer, in the sepulchre, which David had built to receive his own remains, and had filled with treasures and spoils of nations.

"Nothing but gold of Ophir, pearls, and gems
Of priceless value. How they catch the lamp beams.
And sparkle, as I wave it, like the stars
Upon a fitful night of clouds. And lo!
The marble in whose womb he means to sleep."—p. 81.

Balaam-Haddon performs divers incantations; a phantom appears and announces himself as the Genius of the Throne of Israel, who had built up and maintained the greatness of David. Absalom inquires of him in what manner he might secure his lawful birthright. The spirit answers—

"A hostile planet, near allied to thee,
Threatens eclipse and blood: o'ercome but that,

And length of days, and glory shall be thine.
That powerful star is Solomon's, and rides
Hard by the ascendant."—p. 85.

The principal value of this scene lies in the incident which follows the disappearance of the Genius. Balaam-Haddon is seized with a prophetic ecstacy, in which he darkly predicts the future kingdom of the Messiah. The idea is happily taken from the sublime, but unwilling benediction pronounced by Balaam, the son of Beor, upon the tribes of Israel. As the inspiration passes off, the soothsayer falls into a trance, and the artful Hadad takes this opportunity to persuade Absalom that the prophecy, to which he has just listened, relates to the extent and glory of his own reign. Next, we have the meeting of the conspirators, which is given with great liveliness and spirit. The arrangements for the insurrection are made, and Absalom departs for Hebron, on the pretence of offering a sacrifice, but in reality to take the command of an army of rebels mustered there. In the last scene of the third act, Tamar, from the roof of her father's palace, hears the cry and rush of multitudes, and beholds the confusion of the city, when Absalom is proclaimed king in Jerusalem, and his father is compelled to seek safety in flight. She leaves the house of her father, and takes refuge in the tabernacle. The search made after her, at midnight, by Hadad and Absalom, gives the author an opportunity of setting before us a striking picture of the licentious and tumultuous riot and violence of a city, that had just changed masters. At last the place of her retreat is discovered; Hadad, attended by several of Absalom's guards, goes to the tabernacle, and while the guards enter to require that she attend her father, Hadad, watched at a distance by Maugrabin, one of his creatures, remains intently looking through the vail, when the following scene ensues :

"*Had.* Lo! lo!—the bloody shrine of sacrifice,—
The cherub-tissued curtains,—the seven branches,
Revealing through the censer's smothering fume
The dim magnificence!——Each implement
As he prescribed.——These must be symbols, types
Of things hereafter.
Maug. (*muttering to himself.*) Tempt him, if thou wilt—
Pry in his secrets till devouring fire
Break out upon thee—Yea, within the snuff
Of that detested incense!—How the wreaths
Begin to curl about him!—I'll not risk
Annihilation. (*Exit.*)
Had. Wherefore should I tremble?—
Mortals have gazed unblinded—Moses saw
The lightning of his glory pass.——But I—

How could I front the terrible array
If yonder vail should part——One flash might end me!——
What holds them parleying? This abhorred smoke
Is worse than Stygian—every breath I draw
Is mortal agony.—Leave her I will not
In custody of those arch hypocrites——
[*Re-enter Guards, with* TAMAR.]
Mean ye to stay eternity?
First Guard. We stayed not.
Had. Peace!
Second Guard. (*aside to his comrade.*)
Look how convulsed and pale he is;
And see, his breast is bloody."—pp. 148, 149.

Absalom is restrained by the advice of Hushai, one of his counsellors, but friendly to the interests of David, from immediately pursuing the latter, by which means he has an opportunity of strengthening his ranks, and preparing for battle. The retreat of David with his followers is represented in a masterly manner, and with a great variety of interesting and affecting circumstances. On the morning, the two armies engage near the wood of Ephraim. Tamar, guarded by an escort of twenty horsemen, is placed by her father in the charge of Hadad, to whom he had promised her in marriage. With the exception of one or two passages, which seem a little overwrought, the description of the battle is given with infinite spirit, and the reader is made acquainted with its particulars as they occur by a very ingenious and happy method. Hadad and Tamar take shelter in the tent of an Ishmaelite family, who had come to gather spices in the forest of Ephraim, and the Ishmaelites, as they drop in, one by one, with the bloody spoils of the combat, bring intelligence of its progress. At length the troops of Absalom are routed, and himself slain. Hadad contrives to disengage himself from the horsemen, and with Tamar, under the pretence of providing for her safety, penetrates farther into the solitary forest. In the last scene of the drama, the author seems to have put forth all his strength, and we recollect few passages of dramatic poetry, written since the time of Shakspeare, with which this part of the work will not bear an advantageous comparison.

"*A sequestered place in the wood, surrounded with thick dark trees: a fountain, near a cave: Enter* HADAD *and* TAMAR.
Tam. But why dismount here?—night approaches, Hadad:—
See, the slant sunbeams gild but the tall tree-tops,
And evening sables all below. The wood
Grows drear and dismal: let's escape from it.
Had. But we must wait the guard.—Come, sit with me
Beside this mossy fountain: All is still here:—

List the sweet birds nestling among the boughs;
All else soft silence: tumult comes not here.
Sit by this crystal spring awhile.
Tam. No, no,
I will not sit; we must not linger here.
My father bade us haste: we disobey,
And risk his anger.—Keep thy hands from me.
Had. But whither shall we fly?
Tam. Where he commanded.
Had. To vassal Geshui!—Who can there protect us?
Or in Damascus' tributary walls?——
Hear me, sweet Princess, bright star of my being,
Fly, fly with me beyond this wretched scene
Of civil strife, and never-ending discord,
To realms of quietness, where we may dwell
In lasting peace."—pp. 187, 188.

After vainly exhausting every argument which his ingenuity can supply, to persuade her to fly with him from the confines of Israel, and dwell with him in peace and happiness in a distant country, he addresses her with loftier and more thrilling reasons.

"Nay, hold! for thou must listen. And, if deaf
To love, I can speak that will touch thy ear
To fearful ecstacy.
[TAMAR *startled: he proceeds in an agitated manner.*]
—Confide in me,
And turn thy back on this curs'd land for ever,
And I'll convey thee to a Paradise,
Where thou shalt reign the worshipped Queen of realms
To which this Canaan is a darksome span.
Beings shall serve thee brighter than thy dreams:
The Elements shall stoop to thee; the Sea
Disclose her wonders, and receive thy feet
Into her pearly chambers; radiant clouds
Shall be thy chariot; thou shalt roam the skies:—
To satisfy thy noble thirst of knowledge,
Ages, forgotten ages shall cast up
Their hoarded treasures, ere the mighty flood
Covered the mountains, ere this rolling Earth
Stood in her station:—Thou shalt know the Stars,
The Houses of Eternity, their names,
Their courses, destiny;—all secrets high.
Tam. Talk not so madly, Hadad.
Had. (*vehemently.*) Speak——answer——
Wilt thou be mine if mistress of them all?
Tam. I know not what I fear when I say, No.
Thou wouldst not wrong me in this lonely wood,
Confided to thee as a sacred trust—
Alas! and yet thy passion-troubled mien
Appals me.

Had. (*haughtily.*) Ha? perhaps thou doubt'st my power?
Whom dost thou think me?
Tam. Able to achieve
What human strength and genius—
Had. (*with scorn.*) Human strength!
Tam. What horrid thought of pride curls thy pale lip,
And ruffles all thy form?——O, look not thus—
Thy eyes are terrible—Protect me, Heaven!—
How, how have I offended?
Had. Still, thou deem'st me
Hadad—the man—the worm—the 'heritor
Of a poor vanquished tributary king!
Then know me—
Tam. (*terrified.*) Heavens! O, heavens!
Had. This form was Hadad's—
But I—the Spirit—I—the Power who speak
Through these clay lips—am from the Heaven of Heavens,
The peer of Angels."—pp. 191. 193.

He then informs her that, while yet an invisible spirit, he had seen her, and had become enamoured of her early beauty, long before her acquaintance with him whose form he now wears. He relates his sufferings from the miseries of jealousy when "that curst Syrian, fresher than Adonis," became her companion and lover, and tells her that one day finding Hadad newly slain by robbers in a solitary spot, he dared the dreadful consequences denounced against such an act, and entered into and animated his body. To convince her of the truth of his narrative, he shows her the wounds yet fresh on his breast.

"*Had.* Immedicable wounds that thrill and throb
Hourly, as with the mortal steel, and gush
Fresh blood, when stronger passions shake my frame;
No art can heal them and no balm assuage."—p. 196.

He then scoops a handful of water from the fountain beside him, and offers to sprinkle it upon her, and make her bloom and live for ages. She recoils from his approach, abjures his accursed love, and makes her appeal to heaven.

"*Had.* No more—we'll argue after—Thou, at least,
Shalt never bear the Incarnate Foe we fear!"—p. 199.

He then drags her shrieking into the cavern. A party of Cherethites, the followers of David, appear, and the catastrophe is thus described by one of them, who had ventured into the cavern, and now rushes out pale and trembling. His companions inquire of him the cause of his affright, and what he had seen:

"*Cherethite.* One like the Cherubim,
Dreadfully glistering, wing'd, and dazzling bright

As lightning, whose fierce-bickering eyeballs shot
Sparkles like arrows, filling all the cave
With red effulgence,—smiting with grasp'd beams
A howling, withering, ghast, demoniac shape,
Crouched like a venomous reptile,—rage and fear
Gleaming in his fell eyes,—who cursed, and gnash'd,
And yelled, till death's last livid agony."—pp. 200, 201.

The blasted body of Hadad is dragged from the cave, an object of terror and loathing, and Tamar is restored to her friends in Jerusalem.

The character of Tamar is finely and delicately drawn. A good deal of talent is also shown in the sketches we have of the fearless, fiery, and sanguinary Joab, of the frank and humane Ittai, of the mild and benevolent David, and the ambitious and impetuous Absalom. Hadad, likewise, as it seems to us, is a fortunate conception, and the author has managed it with exceeding art. He has contrived to interest us in his fortunes, before we are suffered to know that he is a fallen spirit inhabiting a human body. His youth, his eloquence, his sensibility to natural beauty, his passion for Tamar, his melancholy, and his tears, for the poet even gives him tears, all conspire to enlist our sympathy in his favour. There is, throughout, something mysterious in his demeanour and language, in the extent of his knowledge, and the efficiency of his agency, and he frequently drops dark allusions to his real character, and seems more than once on the point of revealing it to Tamar. All these circumstances prepare the mind for the disclosure which he finally makes, so that although it surprises and agitates, it does not shock us. Even after this disclosure, our principal feeling towards him is that of compassion, and it is not till just before the conclusion, when all the demon breaks out through his disguises, that we are made thoroughly to detest him. We are also greatly mistaken, if there is not, in the idea of a fiend taking the place of a human soul, and animating a human body, something more palpably appalling, something of more substantial terror, than in the common machinery of mere bodiless phantoms and spectres. It is an idea which our minds, accustomed as they are to speculate on the union of the soul and body, admit without difficulty. It confers on the object of our apprehensions a certain fearful connexion and kindred with our race, making it to walk and dwell among us, in appearance one of ourselves, yet most fearfully distinguished from us by malignity, and knowledge, and power.

On a subject respecting which opinions and tastes vary so much, as on the propriety of the introduction of supernatural

machinery into works of fiction, it would be arrogance in us to pretend to lay down any precise rules. Indeed, the capacity of being interested by things of this nature, depends so much upon constitution and temperament, and is so variously modified by accident and education, that all principles relating to the subject must be extremely general and indefinite. That author, however, may be pronounced happy in the use of supernatural machinery, who succeeds in exciting by it an interest in the minds of the majority of readers. The most effectual way of doing this, is to have recourse to notions which make a part of the popular and general belief. Now it seems to us that the conception of Hadad is not too far removed from that belief, to be willingly entertained by the mind. The common doctrine attributes to evil spirits an influence upon the minds of men, and it is not stepping very far out of the shadowy and uncertain boundaries of that doctrine, to allow them power over matter. We shall then have no difficulty in conceiving that a fallen spirit may enter and bear about limbs abandoned of human life.

We think, however, that the author has given Hadad too large a retinue. We could allow him the "dromedary fiend," as it is only once mentioned by Obil, one of the king's grooms, but the crook-back Maagrabin, a vulgar subordinate devil, lodged, as it appears, like Hadad in a human body, and withal a most unsightly one, is a gratuitous and unnecessary addition. The same thing may be said of the phantom raised by Balaam-Haddon in the sepulchre of David. We could wish that all the supernatural agency of the piece were concentrated in Hadad; we are convinced that this would greatly increase the effect which his character, and the part he takes in the action, are fitted to produce. At present, the terrific interest inspired by these is in some degree weakened by being divided among a number of agents.

The work before us has been written with no small degree of care. It is a work which will bear more than one reading, and is constructed of materials that will endure. It is delightful to take up a native production, and among so many things worthy of praise, to find so few opportunities to censure. This is not a book in which a few striking and powerful passages appear amidst a waste of surrounding feebleness, like green oases in an African desert. Here are no unfinished characters, no gaps nor obscurities in the plot, nor puerilities of language or of sentiment. Every page bears the marks of unusual talent strenuously and successfully exerted. Into almost every work of taste, there will unavoidably creep, in the course of the composition.

extravagances, weaknesses, and inconsistencies, and imperfect or languid passages will be produced in moments of hurry and lassitude. These our author has resolutely blotted out, and has come before the public with a present worthy of himself and of them—with the fruits of his strength, and his skill, and his happiest inspirations.

Art. II.—*Report of the Secretary of War, of a Plan for the reduction of the Army of the United States. December* 12, 1820. Washington: Printed by Gales and Seaton.

Before we proceed to the consideration of Mr. Calhoun's plan of organizing the Peace Establishment of the United States, we propose to examine a question, which has excited much discussion in past times, as well as the present, and on which it is desirable that every citizen in the community should entertain correct opinions. It is not enough for the preservation of liberty, that men should think with freedom: they must also be able to think justly—especially upon subjects, which have a serious influence upon the character as well as upon the interests of the particular society, of which they constitute a part.

It is an opinion sanctioned by time and experience, that standing armies are inimical to popular liberty. This proposition is one of those, which are true only under certain limitations, and these it will be our business to discuss. The physical relations of our country with other nations, the nature of our social organization, and the intellectual condition of the people, give us elements of stability and exemption from public commotions, both external and domestic, which no other country has ever possessed. We are emphatically, as we have often been denominated, "a thinking people," capable of strong and elevated resolutions, but little liable to excitement, except upon questions connected with our public liberty. Fortified as we are by our prevailing temper and character, and by the free institutions to which they have given existence, the subject we are about to discuss might not have attracted our attention, but from the renewed importance, which it has received from an authority high in the eyes of the nation;* especially, as we have ever been disposed to regard apprehensions of danger from the prevalence of the military spirit, in a country like ours, as the fruits of a prejudice, which the progress of mind has nearly exploded.

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* See Mr. Clay's letter to Judge Brooke.

In monarchical governments, where all appointments to military offices are made by the prince; where the military establishment is subject to his exclusive authority; where the soldier, oftentimes a foreigner, being enlisted for life, becomes identified with him; where the body of the soldiery, being an essential part of the public police, becomes confounded with the public authority; and where a continued habit of dependance transfers to the person of the sovereign those feelings of loyalty, which properly belong to the country, numerous mercenary forces, endued with a cultivated discipline, strengthen the arm of government, diminish the character and importance of the citizen, and render life, liberty, and property, less secure. But in a nation of freemen, where the representatives of the people have a voice in all military appointments; where enlistments are for a short period; where the soldier is almost always a native; where the Chief Magistracy, being reversionary, presents to the army no individual endowed with permanent authority, or provided with any independent means of securing its affections; and where the soldiery has no part in enforcing the execution of the laws—a small military estab lishment, subject to the annual enactments of the national legislature, cannot, without extraordinary powers of fancy, be deemed dangerous to the quietude and security of the state. In the former case, there are many reasons why the soldier should forget the duties of the citizen, and sink into a passive instrument of power. In the latter case, there are as many reasons why the soldier should be so much of a citizen as to fail in the principle of subordination, and carry with him to the performance of his duties a spirit of independence hardly compatible with the arbitrary nature of military rule.

In history, as in experimental philosophy, the omission of an operating cause in the examination of a result, necessarily vitiates the inference which is drawn from the examination. In experimental philosophy, whenever a practical application of principles is attempted, if all the necessary powers be not present at the experiment, the result will be different from that which is expected or has been foretold. So in history, if, in tracing events back to their origin, every thing which concerns the social institutions, habits, character, and geographical relations of a people, be not contained in the estimate, the conclusion, being illegitimately drawn, cannot safely be assumed as a guide in the subsequent transactions of society. Inaccuracies are the more likely to occur in historical conclusions, because causes remote in their rise, and silent in their operation, often

have as certain an agency in the production of a result, as those more immediately present and obvious,* and because there is no common unerring standard, to which these conclusions may be brought for a test, like experimental proof in mechanical analysis. It is, therefore, safer for every man to draw his own conclusions from the study of events, than to adopt implicitly the conclusions of those, who, like himself, are embarrassed in their inquiries by the common weakness of an erring reason. The necessity of caution in adopting the opinions of others in those departments of knowledge, which give a scope to speculation, becomes the more apparent, when we reflect that the best of modern historical compositions,† the most perfect analysis of legal science,‡ and the political portion of one of the ablest treatises on moral and social obligation,§ are deeply imbued with prejudice and error.

The example which has most commonly been brought to illustrate the proposition, that standing armies are inimical to the spirit of free institutions, is the subversion of Roman liberty. But it has often occurred to us, in passing over the contests of Pompey and Cæsar, and the portion of Roman history immediately preceding them, that the change of government, which these rival factionists were instrumental in bringing about, is to be attributed, in a great degree, to causes unconnected with the prevalence of the military spirit. A reference to the annals of Rome will exhibit, before the days of the triumvirate, a total relaxation of public morals, the original constitution of society completely changed, an equal distribution of property superseded by excessive wealth and extreme poverty, a mercenary and effeminate servitude overspreading the face of the land, and the robust spirit of republicanism surviving only in a few individuals, whose efforts and fate served but to illustrate the general depravation. So completely was the sense of moral obligation destroyed, that Pompey openly paid bribes in his garden to such of the tribes as supported the election of his friend Lucius Afranius to the Consulship ;‖ and tables were publicly set forth in the market places, to pay the people the price of

* In many historians we might almost fancy the law maxim—"Causa proxima, non remota, spectatur"—to be assumed as the rule of their conclusions, with regard to the influences by which the great revolutions of society are brought about.

† Hume's History of England.

‡ Blackstone's Commentaries.

§ Paley's Moral and Political Philosophy.

‖ Plutarch's Life of Cato the younger.

their votes.* So unequal was the distribution of wealth, and so great the dependance of the populace on men of power, that, besides laws for a division of lands and the relief of indigent debtors, Cato induced the Senate, with a view to check the growing influence of Cæsar, to distribute an amount of bread corn among the people, which added five millions five hundred thousand drachmas to the annual burthens of the state.† A nation enervated by the ascendency of every species of vice and disorder, needs not the agency of a disciplined soldiery to complete its subjugation. If Rome had not possessed a single soldier, her fate would have been the same. The body politic had become too corrupt and disorderly for freedom, and in the last struggles of liberty, intrigue and faction bore as powerful a sway as the arm of force. Cæsar, after the defeat of his rival, relied upon the arts of a politician for the security of his dominion. Augustus, if the Roman historian may be credited, was indebted to political management, and not to the sword, for the acquisition of his power.—"Ubi militem donis, populum annona, cunctos dulcedine otii pellexit, insurgere paullatim, munia senatûs, magistratuum, legum in se trahere, nullo adversante."‡

The same historian, in commencing his view of the empire after a short interval from the downfall of the Republic, compresses into the following detail the character of the events he is about to describe, exhibiting a maturity of vice, which could have been nothing less than the fruit of ages of degeneracy :—"Et urbs incendiis vastata, consumptis antiquissimis delubris, ipso capitolio civium manibus incenso; pollutæ ceremoniæ: magna adulteria: plenum exsiliis mare: infecti cædibus scopuli: atrocius in urbe sævitum. Nobilitas, opes, omissi gestique honores pro crimine." "Odio et terrore, corrupti in dominos servi, in patronos liberti : et quibus deerat inimicus, per amicos oppressi."§

We assent most freely to the proposition that standing armies are to be deprecated, but we are compelled by an examination of the course of society, to regard them as the consequence rather than the cause of a corrupt state of the body

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* Plutarch's Life of Julius Cæsar.

† Ditto.

‡ Tac. Annal. lib. I. s. 2.

§ Hist. lib. I. s. 2.—The disorder last enumerated—domestic treachery—is incident to the very last stage of social depravity. In Rome it was not effectually suppressed until the time of Tragan. See Pliny's panegyrics. 42. "Reddita est amicis fides, liberis pietas, obsequium servis."

politic. Large armies spring into life when faction and intrigue have dissolved the necessary coherence of society, when the love of gain has superseded the love of honor, and when a people have become animated by views of conquest. When these vices have seized upon the character of a people, the aid of a mercenary soldiery is scarcely necessary to insure the success of any resolute and enterprising aspirant after power.

But those who seek to sustain the proposition, that standing armies are dangerous to liberty, must not go back to the days of the Roman republic for examples. Precedents, drawn from an age of mental darkness, are inapplicable to an age of light and cultivation. Before the invention of the press, every question of power was brought to the standard of brute force: in the present age, every question of this sort is brought to the standard of public opinion. Throughout the former division of time, every public operation was principally determined by physical force; every public operation now, is principally determined by moral force. In ancient times, an army employed in the subversion of a government, had to encounter men without any common principle of interest to give them union and concert, unconscious of political rights, and accustomed to bow implicitly to the powers above them. In modern times, an army so employed would have to encounter men united by the spirit of freedom, animated by the love of independence, conscious of sacred rights, and accustomed to share, directly or indirectly, in the operations of government. Thus, in the French revolution, the guards of Louis XVI., who remained faithful to his cause, were overwhelmed by the torrent of popular strength. At the erection of the royal standard for the commencement of the civil war in England, in 1642, the national forces, both land and naval, with few exceptions, abandoned the cause of the sovereign, and embraced the popular side of the controversy. In the recent revolutions of Spain and Naples, the military forces were the first to move in favor of the great cause of political freedom; and both these countries were free, until they sunk under the preponderance of an external force. These examples are merely adduced to show, that a new principle has been introduced into the operations of society, which renders in a great measure inapplicable all inferences drawn from the political revolutions of antiquity.

We are led by a review of the considerations which we have presented, to the belief, that a military establishment in this country, so long as its existing relations to the government and the people are unchanged, cannot become dangerous to our

free institutions. It might, no doubt, be enlarged to a size which would make it extremely burdensome to the national finances, and which would greatly impair the general prosperity, by withdrawing from the productive branches of industry an unnecessary number of laborers; but these are the most serious evils, which we should apprehend from an inordinate increase of the army. Taking these premises for granted, the standard to which the dimensions of the army should be brought, would not be derived from any apprehensions of its hostility to the great doctrine of popular freedom, but from an estimate of the public necessities. To prove that this standard is not improperly assumed, it is only necessary to suppose the United States placed in the midst of warlike nations, like those of Europe. In such a case, our military preparations would immediately be augmented, without reference to the conflicting spirit of military establishments and free government, to correspond with the dangers to which we should be exposed. Happily, our dangers from abroad are few and remote. An immense ocean separates us from the great belligerants of the world; the savages, our only constant foe, have been subdued by the force of our arms, and the influence of our intellectual light; the colonial possessions of Europe, which border on us, are too feeble to require any preparation against them; and with the nations of the south, which have recently sprung into independent existence, we shall be likely, from the effect of distance and congenial interests, to remain a long time on terms of peace.

The condition of the states of continental Europe is precisely the reverse of ours. A number of independent societies occupy adjacent territories; and it is their misfortune, that the military preparation which one of them makes, is necessarily followed by a similar preparation on the part of all the others. The policy of Charles VII. of France, who organized the first standing army on the continent, after the dissolution of the Roman legion, introduced into the political order of European governments this new feature, by the force of which, every member of the general society is, of necessity, equipped in an armour adapted to that with which he is liable to be assailed. It is contended by many writers upon government and morals, that this change in the military condition of Europe is favorable to the general order and happiness of civil society;* and

* Examen of Machiavel's Prince, chap. 2.

by others, that it is also the most safe and economical mode of providing for the national defence.*

But, notwithstanding all the arguments by which the favourable influence of the established military system of Europe is sustained, we cannot but consider it, even granting it in some respects to be a blessing, as a blessing encumbered with conditions which almost wholly counteract its beneficial effects. It imposes a pecuniary burden of vexatious magnitude on the industrious classes of society; it operates more directly to the discouragement of industry, by setting apart for the purposes of defence a numerous body of citizens, who would otherwise be employed in some productive department of labor; it renders the spirit of society more warlike and barbarous, by a constant exhibition of military preparations; and finally, it invites to wars and conquest, by arming ambitious sovereigns with the means of executing their views of personal or national aggrandizement. There is, however, one redeeming consideration—contingent, indeed, and we hope remote: the disciplined armies of the South of Europe may, hereafter, present an insuperable barrier to the invading hosts of Muscovy. When we glance at the immense possessions of this enormous empire, its numerous and hardy population, its vast resources, and the despotic character of its institutions, we cannot but apprehend that we see the elements of future conquest and desolation. And we shall deem the present military burdens of Europe of no account, if they shall prove, hereafter, to have been incurred, with the effect of checking a deluge of Vandalism, like that which, in ancient times, poured upon the delicious regions of southern Europe, and buried religion, science, and the social improvements of ages, in one indiscriminate ruin.

From the views which we have taken, and the examples adduced to sustain them, we draw the inference, that the only standard to which our military establishment can be brought, with respect to numbers, is an estimate of our necessities, as derived from an examination of our relations with foreign states. That a consideration of the inconsistent spirit of free institutions and standing armies makes no part of the standard, is evident, from the fact that the latter would invariably be enlarged to meet any increase of the public necessities. The only questions, then, to be solved, in regulating the dimensions of our military establishment, are, 1st. What is the *minimum* force necessary to provide for the security of our frontier possessions, and

* Paley's Moral and Polit. Philos. book vi. chap. 12. s. 8.

to constitute a basis of extension for a war establishment? and 2d. What form of organization is best calculated to secure these objects? The first of these questions we shall not attempt to decide, especially as differences of opinion, too extraordinary to be readily accounted for, or easily reconciled, have prevailed among our distinguished national legislators. At the close of the late war, Mr. Mason, a senator in congress from New-Hampshire, advocated the reduction of the army to 3000 men. Mr. Mason, who is a man of uncommon intellectual endowments, enlightened by study and experience, has always been a distinguished member of the old federal party; and it is hardly necessary to add, that the system of this party has been to build up and invigorate all our national establishments. Mr. Monroe, the late president of the United States, was said to be in favor of an army of 15,000 men. Mr. Calhoun, on the floor of congress, voted for 10,000 men. Mr. Clay, on the contrary, whose voice is now raised against the evil tendency of the military spirit, advocated a retention of 20,000 men as a peace establishment.* But without deciding the respective merits of these several estimates, we are disposed to believe that the creation of a scientific corps of officers, sufficiently numerous to organize and discipline such an army as would meet the probable exigencies of the country in case of foreign war, would dispense with the preservation, in time of peace, of all except a very moderate number of rank and file. Recruits are easily disciplined to the habits of soldiers, if they have the advantage of able instruction. The delay which attended the formation of our armies during the late war, and the disasters to which their inefficiency gave rise, were all owing to the want of a body of scientific and experienced officers. The commissioned grades, like the ranks, were principally filled from domestic life; and the consequence was, that the officers were as inexperienced as their men: they had the rudiments of their education to acquire, at a time when it should have been perfected.

These observations lead us to the consideration of Mr. Calhoun's plan of organization, which is, to retain a proportion of officers greater than that which exists in war formations, so that the peace establishment, by the mere addition of rank and file, may be enlarged at once, on the occurrence of hostilities, to a compass which would be adequate to the public defence. Mr. Calhoun's views, as stated in the report cited at the head of this article, are given too much in detail to be inserted entire, but

* "Tempora mutantur, et nos," &c.

the following extracts from different parts of the report will afford a tolerably just conception of his plan.

"Those qualities which essentially distinguish an army from an equal assemblage of untrained individuals, can only be acquired by the instruction of experienced officers. If they, particularly the company and regimental officers, are inexperienced, the army must remain undisciplined, in which case the genius, and even the experience of the commander, will be of little avail. The great and leading objects, then, of a military establishment in peace, ought to be to create and perpetuate military skill and experience; so that, at all times, the country may have at its command a body of officers sufficiently numerous and well instructed in every branch of duty, both of the line and staff; and the organization of the army ought to be such as to enable the government, at the commencement of hostilities, to obtain a regular force, adequate to the emergencies of the country, properly organized and prepared for actual service. It is thus only that we can be in the condition to meet the first shocks of hostilities with unyielding firmness; and to press on an enemy while our resources are yet unexhausted."

"No position connected with the organization of the peace establishment, is susceptible of being more rigidly proved than that the proportion of its officers to the rank and file ought to be greater than in a war establishment. It results immediately from a position, the truth of which cannot be fairly doubted, and which I have attempted to illustrate in the preliminary remarks, that the leading object of a regular army in time of peace ought to be, to enable the country to meet, with honor and safety, particularly at the commencement of war, the dangers incident to that state. To effect this object, as far as practicable, the peace organization ought, as has been shown, to be such, that in passing to a state of war, there should be nothing either to new model or create; and that the difference between that and the war organization ought to be simply in the greater magnitude of the latter." "The war organization, thus raised on the basis of the peace establishment, will bring into effective operation the whole of the experience and skill of the latter, which, with attention, would, in a short period, be communicated to the new recruits and the officers recently appointed, so as to constitute a well disciplined force."

We conceive this plan of providing for our national defence as less objectionable than any which we have ever known proposed; 1, because it dispenses with the greatest possible number of common soldiers; and, 2, because it secures the greatest aggregate amount of facilities for promptly creating an efficient force on any sudden emergency. As we have already observed, recruits are readily levied, and, with able instruction, soon acquire the regularity and discipline of an army. Officers, on the contrary, require a systematic education to procure the knowledge and experience which would qualify them to organize an army, give it habits of order and obedience, and conduct it to victory. If there is any foundation for the apprehension that standing armies may prove dangerous to our liberties, the

plan of Mr. Calhoun gives the peace establishment the least objectionable form, as dangers would be expected from a mercenary soldiery, and not from a body of intelligent officers, chosen from among ourselves, bearing our own blood, and nurtured with us in the enjoyment of a common liberty. Mr. Calhoun's plan dispenses, as far as possible, with the former, and relies principally upon the latter. When we consider that the rank and file of the army, being enlisted for a short period, are constantly changing, the reduction of their numbers will hardly be deemed to involve any sacrifice of the public interest. If they were enlisted, like the soldiery of most European states, for life, and if there were a certainty that they would compose a part of the army, on the recurrence of war, the expediency of diminishing their numbers might be questioned. As it is, the officers would be our principal reliance in creating a more enlarged establishment, and hence the propriety of retaining them in a greater proportion than the rank and file.

But the most important effect which would follow an adoption of Mr. Calhoun's plan to its full extent, would be the necessity of elevating the character and increasing the efficiency of the militia of the country. In proportion as the peace establishment is diminished in numbers, the attention of the government will be directed to arming the militia, and giving it uniform systems of discipline and instruction; an object which has long been discussed, which has been advocated on the floor of Congress with great and meritorious zeal, but to which the public has given a degree of attention far inferior to its importance. On this subject, it is our intention to enlarge our view in a future number, when we shall be better prepared, and when we shall be able to present it unembarrassed by other discussions. At this time, we shall content ourselves with saying, that we deem the militia of this country, whether we regard it with a reference to our national character and institutions, with a view only of its own intrinsic efficiency and power, or as the source from which the materials for our regular forces are derived in time of war, as a national establishment of the first importance. A community accustomed to the use of arms, may set at defiance domestic, as well as external enemies, so long as the social virtues are unimpaired. The occasions on which the militia of the United States has been called forth to achieve victories over the regular forces of Europe, are so many convincing illustrations of its importance as an arm of defence; while, at the same time, the many defeats it has suffered, sometimes without resistance, indicate the necessity of bringing it as near the per-

fection of a regularly disciplined force as is compatible with the general interest of the community. That this interest would be in some measure impaired by the sacrifice of time and labor, which necessarily accompanies a regular system of military exercises, must be admitted; but not in any sort of proportion, we conceive, to the beneficial change, which such a system would work in the power and security of a free people. The facility, with which such a militia could be converted into a regular army, by such a body of officers as Mr. Calhoun proposes to preserve, is obvious.

With an army of small dimensions, organized on Mr. Calhoun's plan with a large proportion of officers, and a militia well armed and instructed in the first principles of discipline and exercise, according to some uniform system, we should consider our military preparation complete. The officers of the peace establishment would be capable, in case of war, of disciplining, without delay, a vastly extended force, and the militia would furnish the materials for such extension. We, of course, consider the military academy at West Point as an indispensable branch of the peace establishment, and it is our intention at a future day to examine it in detail. There are considerations in its favor too numerous and weighty to be briefly stated, and we waive all comment on it, until we shall be able to present at large the arguments in favor of cherishing and perfecting it. On this point, however, we believe there is no difference of opinion in the country.

We perceive, by a report of Major General Brown, that the war department has adopted a suggestion made by him, to enlist no foreigners into the ranks of the army. In this arrangement we cordially acquiesce, because we believe our own citizens have a higher character, and are better calculated, independently of the national spirit which they would carry to the field, for our public defence. We take it to be an undeniable principle, that a man is formidable as a soldier in precise ratio of his political importance as a citizen—that, with equal numbers and equal discipline, success invariably follows the balance of freedom. Setting aside a few instances of extraordinary enthusiasm in conquering armies, the results of which seem to have been obtained in violation of the commonly received relations of cause and effect, this position will be supported by any reference which can be made to the annals of society, at any stage of its progress. Upon the strength of this principle alone, we should prefer a native to a foreigner as a mem-

ber of the army; and we have further cause of preference in the consideration that his origin, his connexions, his education, his course of life, and his habits of thought, all tend to combine with his national spirit, as a part of the public defence, the more domestic spirit of a citizen. Between the soldier of a republic and the soldier of a prince, there are numerous points of difference; but none so important as that which springs from this very distinction, that one is the dependent of a free, and the other of an arbitrary form of government. Each participates in the characteristic spirit of the institution, under which he is arrayed in arms. The impulses of the one are principally derived from personal considerations—those of the other, from the more animating and exalted sentiment of country: the one is fitted, by the course of his reflections, to become the passive instrument of tyranny—the other is almost irresistibly impelled by the current of his thoughts in a popular direction.

We have already glanced at the securities which we possess against the calamities of war, in our geographical position with regard to Europe, and our relations of interest with the countries of our own continent. Our national character affords a still higher degree of security. Among a people enjoying the blessings of an enlightened education, a free press, and a representative government, wars will never be hastily commenced, because the popular will, guided by a cultivated judgment, is invariably brought to the decision of every question of general interest. Arms will, therefore, not be resorted to, except in cases where the public mind is strongly excited by a sense of injustice or indignity; and as individuals are more readily roused by encroachments on their own personal immunities than by those which touch the general interest of the community, there is danger that the public injuries of the United States will rather be endured too long, than resented too hastily. Our distance from the warlike nations of the world stands in striking contrast with the condition of European states. An immense ocean is to be traversed before we can be assailed; while on the continent of Europe, a statistical boundary only is to be passed, and an invading power is upon the possessions of its enemy. In proportion as nations are disjoined by intervening seas and territories, the dangerous influence of conflicting principles and institutions is diminished;* and feuds are dissipated by separa-

* In ancient times, a mere difference of customs and manners was classed among the prolific causes of war.

"Ex diversitate morum crebra bella."—Tac. Hist. V.

tion, which would be nourished and ripened by contact. This observation will be best illustrated by adverting to the present division of mankind upon the principle of representation, the fate of Spain and Naples leaving little room to doubt that our distance from the sphere in which the arbitrary governments of Europe revolve, is all that secures us from the perfidy of their machinations, and the terror of their arms.

It is, at the same time, the object and the felicity of conquering nations, to carry their arms far beyond their own possessions, and to wage destructive wars without, while all is order and tranquillity within. Such was the policy, and such the good fortune of Rome.* But this circumstance is not peculiar to the ancient mistress of the world. England, in modern times, with superior advantages of position, has spread her forces over almost every soil in the known world, without suffering her own territory to be polluted by the footstep of an invader. We should, perhaps, hardly be justified by a reference to history, unconnected with philosophical abstractions, in saying, that there is any particular form of government, which is more peculiarly favorable than any other to peace. Rome was martial in the days of her servitude, and in the days of her freedom. Athens was formidable with habits of licentiousness, and Sparta with habits of restraint. The spirit of commerce has been considered adverse to warlike pursuits, those nations which have been devoted to the business of traffic and exchange, having exhibited the least inclination to encounter the collisions of war. Carthage, notwithstanding the martial achievements which she performed in defence of her commerce, was pacific in her spirit, and waged those fatal wars which terminated in her downfall, with the money, rather than the arms, of her own citizens. But the deductions which have been made from her example, and the example of other nations of analogous constitution and character, have all been defeated by the history of England—a nation which has united, in a single career, the commercial enterprise of Carthage, the military triumphs of Rome, and the naval achievements of Greece.

Our wars are to be defensive wars. Our policy, the genius of our institutions, the division of our industry, the spirit of society, and the pursuits of our citizens, all invite to peace. With these influences, our geographical position combines, confirm-

* "Fuit proprium populi Romani longè à domo bellare," says Cicero. Thus their enemies could not turn against them the resources of their own country. It was on this account Hannibal said to Antiochus, that the Romans could never be beaten but in Italy.

ing and giving them effect. We shall, therefore, only be likely to engage in hostilities when we are stimulated by flagrant acts of aggression, unless we should be seduced by the spirit of conquest,—and this cannot take place until our political and social condition is radically changed. That we shall be occasionally involved in wars is, however, to be anticipated: to expect a different lot would be to disregard the whole course of civil society. We, however, hope, and we have reason to believe, so long as our national character and institutions are unchanged, that in our future wars, as in those through which we have passed, we shall always be able to justify ourselves in the language used by Caius Pontius, in addressing an assembly of the Samnites, who were convened for the purpose of resisting the aggressions of Rome—"Justum est bellum quibus necessarium; et pia arma quibus nulla nisi in armis relinquitur spes."*

ART. III.—*Essays on the Nature and Uses of the various Evidences of Revealed Religion.* By GULIAN C. VERPLANCK. New-York, 1824. 8vo. pp. 267.

In that department of human knowledge, which is bounded on the one hand by science merely physical, and on the other by developments purely spiritual, the evidences of christianity lift themselves up, as the middle term of extremes, wide as earth from heaven. The proofs are sometimes substantial, as the miracles which men saw, and heard, and felt in its opening era; and sometimes moral, but not less satisfactory, such as ever gleam from that face of divinity, which is impressed upon the pages of the revelation of Jesus.

The volume of which we now proceed to present a brief notice to our readers, draws its demonstration of the divine original and use of the holy scriptures from the latter, which is a practical and unfailing source of evidence. Without advancing into any distinct exhibition of the severing lines of theological belief, it surveys a field too much neglected, and prepares the way for a more definite exposition of the truths of religion. We may have books upon the subject here selected from persons of the most varying tenets, and from those who have almost no other tenet than that the scriptures are inspired. The evidences are, like man, who pursues these ratiocinations, of double composition: sometimes like the matter, which miracle

* Liv. Lib. IX. Cap. 1.

disenthralled from disease and death, and sometimes like the immaterial spirit which religion emancipates from every link to corruption, and fits for a residence beyond the skies. One surely need but be a man, to feel the importance of this investigation, and to desire to examine the *brief* of him, who sets forth the authenticity of an oracle from heaven. Of all books, the bible is most to be studied, if it deserves any notice; of all intellectual phenomena, prophecy is the most curious; of all diclosures, the prophetic portraiture of what is after death, and in the judgment, is the most momentous. While our courts of law attract a host of idlers, "the trial of the witnesses" to the christian revelation has invited many of the philosophers and the polite of every age. To walk around this monument of christianity, to examine the substructions of an edifice which towers untouched over the desolations of eighteen centuries, to observe the hand of the Great Architect in this temple which he has provided for his worshippers, is to occupy ourselves in what philosophy earnestly advises, and in what religion solemnly enjoins.

Instead, therefore, of the reprehension which his motto modestly deprecates,* Mr. Verplanck is highly to be praised, that forsaking, for a time, the pursuits of general literature and the toil of a statesman's duty, he has followed in a track where Addison, and Littleton, and West, and Beattie, and Erskine (of Edinburgh) have led the way. The last named "advocate" has anticipated our author in the publication of his work, but we much mistake, if the productions in manuscript were not cotemporaneous. We think it just ground of congratulation to our readers and our nation, that we can bring forward to their notice a volume like these Essays. For although we would be the last to admit, that not the innate reasonableness of the arguments in favor of religion, but the cloak of him who preaches them gives them comeliness and force in the audience of the world; although we think that the mere *professional* weight of the clergy has, in this country, fallen below its just standard, having once been much above it; yet there are those who would rather hear laymen speak on these topics; and we know that all the *profession* will be delighted to see that a layman is convinced that they are not for their exclusive guardianship and use.

Mr. Verplanck's address before the New-York Historical So-

* Quis tandem me reprehendat, si quantum alii tempestivis conviviis, quantum aleæ, quantum pilæ; tantum mihi egomet ad hæc studia recolenda sumpsero.—Cic.

ciety, ranks among the very best works of the kind, and we are, therefore, glad to see the attention of so admired a writer turned towards a sacred subject. All who labor in this field may use the words of the early eloquent defender of the faith, the christian Cicero, as Lactantius is deservedly called:—"Si quidam prudentes, et arbitri æquitatis, institutiones civilis juris compositas ediderunt, quibus civium dissidentium lites contentionesque sopirent: quanto melius nos et rectius divinas institutiones litteris persequemur; in quibus non de stillicidiis aut aquis arcendis, ant de manu conserendâ, sed de spe, de vitâ, de salute, de immortalitate, de Deo loquemur, ut superstitiones mortiferas, erroresque turpissimos sopiamus."*

Among the various authors upon the evidences of revealed religion who have preceded our countryman, the affinity is the nearest between himself and Erskine. They both insist less upon the external, or, as we might say, physical evidences, than upon the internal proofs and moral demonstrations which evince an inwrought divinity in the scriptures. Without attempting to describe the features of similarity, or to note the points of difference, it will satisfy our present purpose, to pass hastily over the contents of this volume, and induce our readers to study it afterwards for themselves. It is well deserving of it for many reasons, as we shall show; and while it possesses graver sources of interest, there is this minor one, that such a degree of coincidence in plan and execution should exist in works written simultaneously in Edinburgh and New-York.

In his preface, the author states, that it is not his design to present a regular and formal exposition of the evidences of christianity; but leaving this ample field to its present occupants, he limits himself to the consideration of the manner in which revelation meets the intellectual and moral wants of human beings. The first essay passes generally over the several heads of the evidences of revealed religion; their various characters; and the argument resulting from their concurrent testimony. He says—

"The evidence of revelation is, throughout, not only in its general heads, but in every branch of it, (to use the happy and expressive phrase of Dr. Paley,) strictly 'cumulative;'† each part serving not merely to confirm the other evidence of the same nature, but also, by the aggrega-

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*Lactantius de falsâ Religione, lib. I. cap. prim.

† "This useful and expressive word is, I believe, original with Paley; at least, in the general and popular sense in which he applies it. It is borrowed from the civil law, where it has an analogous technical signification."

tion of innumerable probabilities, to strengthen the whole an hundred fold, until every chance of error or fraud is gradually, and at length completely, excluded; 'and thus,' says Jeremy Taylor, 'the heaping together heads 'of probabilities is or may be the cause of an infinite persuasion.' 'Pro- 'bable arguments,' continues that eloquent divine, with his accustomed lavish exuberance of beautiful illustration and brilliant imagery; 'pro- 'bable arguments are like little stars, every one of which may be useless 'to our conduct and enlightening, but when they are tied together by 'order and vicinity, by the finger of God and the hand of an angel, they 'make a constellation, and are not only powerful in their influence, but 'like a bright angel to guide and enlighten our way. And although the 'light is not so great as the light of the sun or moon, yet mariners sail by 'their conduct, and though with trepidation and some danger, yet very 'regularly they enter into the haven. This heap of probable inducements 'is not of power as a mathematical demonstration, which is in discourse 'as a sun is in the heaven, but it makes a milky and a white path, visi- 'ble enough to walk securely.' "*

In preparing to discuss the *moral internal evidence*, as our author styles it, he has occasion to allude to the state of mind in which the truth should be examined. We surely ought to purge ourselves of malice or prejudice, if we will be jurors in the great trial which every work on the evidences supposes to be in progress. It is a maxim equally beautiful and just of St. Jerome, "nudam crucem nudus sequens, expeditior et levior scandis scalam Jacob." Revelation has its type in the ladder of Jacob; they most resemble the ascending angels, who bear the least of earth with them.

After an induction of particular arguments, which the brevity of this notice forbids our stating, Mr. Verplanck concludes the essay as follows:

"The more all or any of these truths are examined and studied, so much the more numerous and cogent will they appear; but a very general and superficial view of them, if it be but an unprejudiced one, will show the existence of many such points of evidence, which, if not irresistible, all possess at least some degree of probability.

"If this be so, no prudent and no honest man should turn contemptuously from this evidence; because, to his understanding, or his imperfect knowledge, no single part of it seems conclusive, without first attending to the concurrent power of the whole.

"It is for this purpose, that when we have thoroughly digested, and familiarized to our minds the historical and prophetic arguments in proof of Christianity, and have in the same manner satisfied ourselves in the study of the innumerable points which compose and fortify its other heads of moral demonstration, it is highly useful to retire back, as it were, from this minute inspection, to such a general and comprehensive survey as allows us to take in at once the distinct outlines of all, and observe how they severally harmonize, both in their various component parts, and

* Taylor's *Ductor Dubitantium*.

with each other. Then, to use the language of Pope, though with a more elevated, as well as a more practical meaning, than ever entered into the poet's philosophy, we shall perceive that, in revelation, as in the other works of God,

> Nothing is foreign—parts relate to whole;
> One all-extending, all-preserving soul
> Connects all being—nothing stands alone;
> The chain holds on, and where it ends, unknown.

"Prophecy announces the advent of the religion of Jesus; History records its progress; Literature and Criticism combine to attest to the muniments of its doctrines: but its surest witnesses are to be found in man's own breast—in the grandeur of his thoughts—in the lowness of his desires—in the aspirations which lift him towards the heavens—in the vices which weigh him to the earth—in his sublime, his inexplicable conceptions of Infinity and Eternity—in his humiliating experience of folly, misery, and guilt."—pp. 32, 33.

In the second essay, the author takes up a subject which, more than almost any other, has, in our opinion, afforded ground for misapprehension among the advocates of truth, and the just view of which is exceedingly important; we mean, "the power of human reason to judge of the internal evidence of truth in the doctrines and precepts of religion."

Dr. Chalmers has certainly expressed himself in language too unmeasured, when combating the presumption which would seat itself in the throne of the universe, and scan the laws and destinies of creation. Probably without differing many hairs breadth from the temperate views of our author, he has given more scope for censure than our admiration of his powers makes us willing to allow. We think Mr. Verplanck much to be commended for his observations upon this disputed topic. Some have asserted that heavenly doctrine must pass through the alembic of a chosen few, before it is fit for the reception of the vulgar many; some assert that human reason may sit umpire rather than pupil, and mould the plain sense of the scriptures at its pleasure. Some set forth such a system of natural theology (derived, as we believe, from revelation) as to make revelation itself apparently unnecessary. Some, on the other hand, reduce human powers to so low a standard, as to leave it little exalted above the clay which is the soul's covering, the plastic recipient of external impressions. *Veritas in medio.*

"Literary men, conversant with the difficulties, the refined logic, and the clashing theories of moral science, as well as speculative theologians, versed in the metaphysical subtleties of controversial divinity, looking back with complacent pride upon their own laborious studies, the long and patient attention which it has cost them to attain to any definite conclusions, and the perplexing doubts which still embarrass every part of

their science, after employing and exhausting the genius of the most acute and profound inquiries from Aristotle to Jonathan Edwards; whilst they will most readily allow the moral sensibility of uneducated men to the powers of religious impression, are slow to admit that vulgar minds and undisciplined intellects can gain any really rational perception of the truths, connected with and involving such grand and high contemplations. They overlook the marked distinction between the nice analysis of principles, the accurate statement of definitions, the logical inferences from them, the daring solution of difficulties in the government of the world, and the structure of our own thoughts; in short, between all that constitutes the theory of metaphysical science, and these mysterious but certain first truths and rational instincts which are implanted in the breasts of all men, and which prepare them to confess the power of a Creator, to apprehend his perfections, and to know the obligations of his laws. The one is indeed an elevating employment of the intellect, but in its results how often vain and false—always how cold and inoperative! The others are in fact the germs and seeds of all intellectual and moral knowledge, and they are not the less efficient because they are not embodied in words, nor sorted and fashioned into systems. If philosophers will not confess them to be of reason, they must then be considered as something nobler and more divine than reason itself. They may lie dormant, in the darkness of ignorance, or the corruption of gross vice; but, when the occasion which is to call them into energy arrives, they develop themselves, we know not how: heaven's beams shine upon them, and they burst into life and power."— pp. 68—70.

The third essay on the probable characteristics of truth in the doctrines, precepts, and moral influence of any religion, is, perhaps, the most interesting and valuable in the volume. We earnestly commend it to general notice. The fourth is on the intention and uses of the different kinds of evidences for the truth of christianity. The fifth, on the critical, internal evidence; and the sixth, on "the internal evidence arising from congruity of narrative and character—from style and manner; with remarks upon the connexion of the partial obscurities of scripture, with its probable uses and intentions."

We shall close our extracts with the following passage. We know, from the best proof, the sale of the edition, that many of our readers have already read the volume; but such as have not, it will enable, in some measure, to judge for themselves, of the merits of the work.

"Paul is portrayed as a man of learning and talent, of a profound theological education, and of an active mind, and his Epistles are confessedly remarkable for containing many things hard to understand. Why are they so? Is it from the enthusiasm, the mysticism, or the affected and oracular obscurity of the writer? Or are not the subjects themselves hard to be understood? Many of them are things which the human understanding can never completely grasp—of which we can have but partial and wholly inadequate conceptions, glimpses; not distinct

views. Are not, in fact, all subjects connected with, or arising out of, the overwhelming truths of eternity, omnipotence and spiritual being—of the mysterious questions of the origin and existence of evil, and especially of moral evil—of the permission of sin, and the creation, by a benevolent and omniscient Creator, of accountable beings, with strong tendencies towards error and vice—of foreknowledge and free will, together with the innumerable practical or theoretical doubts and opinions which grow out of these—are not all these subjects necessarily very hard to be understood by the human mind?

"But in considering the internal signs of authenticity and veracity, I refer chiefly to the manner of his unfolding these opinions, and of arguing upon these subjects. It is a manner wholly original, and bearing the deepest impress of truth and nature. The writer professes himself to be one who has heard, and seen, and been taught unutterable things—who has been brought to th knowledge and confession of that truth, which engrosses all his thoughts, and swallows up every other interest, not through the slow processes of reason, or by the observation of miraculous facts visible to the senses, or in the ordinary operation or moral illumination through the conscience and affections, but in a manner not only supernatural but wholly peculiar; whose knowledge of the doctrines, which, he authoritatively declares to his disciples, he tells them, came not of man nor through man, but immediately from the Father of lights, in a way which he himself does not and could not describe or explain—whether in the body or out of the body, he is wholly uncertain.

"This statement, the objector will say, is the work either of delusion or imposture; but let us compare the account given us of Paul's history and his state of mind with his writings, and mark how wonderful is the congruity which we may observe between them.

"His style, forcible, flexible, and copious as it is, is not perspicuous; but its obscurity is like that effulgence which the great English epic poet has described as being "dark with excess of light." His mind is evidently crowded with ideas struggling for utterance, with thoughts and emotions for which he finds language to be wholly inadequate, to which he feels that the habitual conceptions, the reason, the knowledge, the experience, of those to whom he addresses himself, present no sufficient counterpart. He labors with the magnitude of a revelation, with the vastness and certainty of a knowledge, which his mind can with difficulty contain, and which he feels that he can but partially unfold to others.

"His intense and immediate conviction of truth, is accompanied with an equal intensity of feeling. He is filled with devotion, fervid gratitude, prostrate humility, unquenchable zeal. From these causes, naturally arise his sudden transitions, his rapid accumulations of thought upon thought.—Hence his peculiar mode of unexpectedly rising from the argument in which the errors, or the controversies of the times happened to engage him, to loftier themes, and holier contemplations; connecting with the business and controversies of this world, which were soon to pass away, considerations of eternal and universal importance, of whose reality he had a still more intimate and present conviction.

"It is true, that to him who has made no approach to this knowledge, and more especially to him who has no answering sympathies to his kindling sentiment, much of this is, and must ever be, strangely and wildly obscure—his transitions must appear abrupt, his raptures extravagant or enthusiastic, and his reasonings incoherent or inconclusive.

"Yet, if we grant that he taught the truth, and emember the manner in which this truth is asserted to have been poured into his mind, and the extent and distinctness of the revelation so vouchsafed to him, then we can easily trace a most perfect coincidence between the style and character of thought, argument, and language, and that state of feeling which we may judge to have been habitual to the writer whenever his mind was turned, either in direct meditation, or by some casual association, to the recollection of the "deep things of God."—238—241.

Mr. Verplanck's mind is deeply imbued with much reading in the best authors. The range of his illustrations sometimes creates an incongruity between the sacredness of his subject, and his allusions; but his argument is never weak, and he evinces a judgment, in a remarkable degree, calm and unprejudiced. Many of his readers will doubt the wisdom of generalizing so far as scarcely to specify the doctrines of revealed religion; and many will think that he speaks with less effect, because he stands so much in the outer porch of the temple. We are convinced, that the more we descend to particulars in the doctrines of Christ, the more we shall find a divine life in every vein and fibre. In general propositions, so much may be said on each hand, that the longer we live, the more we become sceptical of mere human reasonings. We remember to have heard, not many leagues from Coppet, that after M. Benjamin Constant had read, several years ago, an essay against religion to a circle at Madame de Stael's, she told him that the fashion had changed, the times were altered, he ought now to write in favor of religion. He took the advice, and produced, in a few days, an admirable specimen of dialectics, refuting his former positions. We do not vouch for the truth of all this; *se non è vero, è ben trovato*. Mr. Verplanck writes with the stamp of deep and earnest conviction; and he proves so well the divine authority of the Bible, that we hope he will soon be prepared to pronounce upon more than these preliminary considerations. His style is pure, perspicuous, and beautifully elaborated; not always, perhaps, sufficiently spirited and flowing, and sometimes, although not often, cumbersome and heavy; peculiarities which the habit of devoting himself more to philosophical abstractions than to the expression of eloquent feeling, has probably induced. On a subject which has called forth the talents, the learning, and the eloquence of the ablest divines, there was little reason to expect any increase or enforcement of the evidences of our faith. Mr. Verplanck has, therefore, done much more than could be reasonably required. By an occasional contribution of new testimony, and a skilful and impressive exhibition of the old, he has given to his book a value, original in its character. and, we doubt not, lasting in its influence.

ART. IV.—*The Travellers. A Tale. Designed for Young People. By the author of "Redwood."* New-York: Bliss & White. 1825.

If there be any circumstance, by which the literature of the present century is advantageously distinguished from that of the preceding, it is the multiplication of books intended to improve the minds and form the manners of the young. The mere increase of books of this kind would not, perhaps, be a circumstance on which we ought greatly to congratulate ourselves, were it not for the far greater ability and judgment with which they are composed. Writers of high reputation and great attainments, have set themselves diligently to smooth the difficulties of knowledge. They have reduced the sciences to their simplest and plainest rudiments. They have, in short, as nearly as could be done, translated them into the ordinary language, and brought them down to the ordinary conceptions of life, so as to leave no obstacles in the way of their attainment, but such as are inherent in their own nature. The topics of general knowledge have been presented to the youthful mind in the form of interesting conversations; and the principles of virtue and practical wisdom have been insinuated in captivating and elegant fictions. These things are a happy omen for the next generation. There are no duties which lie upon us with a more urgent and fearful responsibility, than our duties to those who rise up to take our places in life after we are gone. We may, perhaps, do something for those who are arrived with us to mature age, in the way of making them wiser; but it is little, very little, that our most painful exertions can effect towards making them better. Indeed, society has good cause to esteem itself fortunate, if any means are devised to prevent them from becoming worse. It is only on the rising generation that we can feel any confidence that the lessons of virtue will not be lost; and if the age is to make any progress in goodness, if the world is ever to be reformed, it must be by the gradual influences of a judicious system of education.

It is matter of pleasure to us, to see a writer, of the powers possessed by the author of Redwood, employing her talents in a sphere where they are likely to do so much good. The work whose title we have placed at the head of this article, is an uncommonly graceful little narrative, and will bear no unfavourable comparison with the best of those engaging fictions of Miss Edgeworth, which were written with the same design. In some respects, she seems to us to have the advantage of Miss Edgeworth. We refer to the inculcation of religious motives on

proper occasions, and to the warmer and deeper tone of feeling, and the brighter colouring of imagination, which pervades these pages. Not only are the writings of Miss Edgeworth, designed for youthful readers, carefully devested of whatever has the effect of exciting the imagination, but their tendency is to repress every thing like enthusiasm in youthful minds, and to reduce the motives of action to a sober calculation of worldly profit and advantage. Such a system, of course, excludes all religious influences, and with them, those generous impulses of the heart, which carry us out of ourselves, and prompt us to do good to others without caring for personal consequences. What is commonly called enthusiasm, is often only a fervid and active disinterestedness. It is, without doubt, exceedingly annoying when directed to trifling or impracticable objects; and very dangerous, when it mistakes hurtful for beneficial ones; but it has been, and we apprehend will always be, the spring of nearly all the noble and illustrious actions which dignify the history of the human race. It is the principle that agitates and purifies the moral world; the great enemy of indolence, of the love of pleasure, and of selfish ambition. It is the powerful agent which breaks down established abuses, and at the sacrifice of present advantage, secures important blessings for posterity. Its entire absence from the mind may, in short, be looked upon as a sort of imperfection and deformity. It is a quality bestowed for wise purposes, and capable of being employed to effect important ends: its extravagances are without doubt to be checked, and its direction to be watched over and regulated; but it is no more to be annihilated than either of our five senses. Nor is the imagination a faculty which a system of education, judiciously adapted to our nature, should aim to efface from the mind. It should, of course, be kept under a proper regulation; but we need not waste time in attempting to show that it requires only a wise cultivation, to make it, what it was meant to be, an important means of happiness. That faculty which spreads brightness and beauty over the face of nature; which connects moral associations with inanimate objects; the exercise of which makes society cheerful, and even turns solitude into a kind of society, is certainly to be looked upon, not merely as an innocent, but as a most useful and valuable faculty.

The work we are now considering, is principally an account of a journey performed by two very young persons, a brother and sister, who, in company with their parents, make what is called the grand tour of Niagara, the lakes, &c. On their way, a variety of interesting incidents take place, which, by the judi-

cious management of their parents, aided by the ingenuous reflections of their own minds, are improved into so many lessons of wisdom and benevolence. They are related in a very spirited and agreeable manner. As a specimen of the work, we give one of those beautiful little narratives with which it is interspersed. A stranger is relating to the travellers a tradition concerning the ruins of an old French fortification, situated on a point of land at the junction of the Oswegatchie and the St. Lawrence.

"A commandant of this fort (which was built by the French to protect their traders against the savages) married a young Iroquois, who was before or after the marriage converted to the Catholic faith. She was the daughter of a chieftain of her tribe, and great efforts were made by her people to induce her to return to them. Her brother lurked in this neighbourhood, and procured interviews with her, and attempted to win her back by all the motives of national pride and family affection; but all in vain. The young Garanga, or, to call her by her baptismal name, Marguerite, was bound by a threefold cord—her love to her husband, to her son, and to her religion. Mecumeh, finding persuasion ineffectual, had recourse to stratagem. The commandant was in the habit of going down the river often on fishing excursions, and when he returned, he would fire his signal gun, and Marguerite and her boy would hasten to the shore to greet him.

"On one occasion he had been gone longer than usual. Marguerite was filled with apprehensions, natural enough at a time when imminent dangers and hairbreadth escapes were of every day occurrence. She had sat in the tower and watched for the returning canoe till the last beam of day had faded from the waters;—the deepening shadows of twilight played tricks with her imagination. Once she was startled by the water-fowl, which, as it skimmed along the surface of the water, imaged to her fancy the light canoe impelled by her husband's vigorous arm—again she heard the leap of the heavy muskalongi, and the splashing waters sounded to her fancy like the first dash of the oar. That passed away, and disappointment and tears followed. Her boy was beside her; the young Louis, who, though scarcely twelve years old, already had his imagination filled with daring deeds. Born and bred in a fort, he was an adept in the use of the bow and the musket; courage seemed to be his instinct, and danger his element, and battles and wounds were 'household words' with him. He laughed at his mother's fears; but, in spite of his boyish ridicule, they strengthened, till apprehension seemed reality. Suddenly the sound of the signal gun broke on the stillness of the night. Both mother and son sprang on their feet with a cry of joy, and were pressing hand in hand towards the outer gate, when a sentinel stopped them to remind Marguerite it was her husband's order that no one should venture without the walls after sunset. She, however, insisted on passing, and telling the soldier that she would answer to the commandant for his breach of orders—she passed the outer barrier. Young Louis held up his bow and arrow before the sentinel, saying gayly, 'I am my mother's body-guard you know.' Tradition has preserved these trifling circumstances, as the events that followed rendered them memorable.

"The distance, continued the stranger, from the fort to the place where the commandant moored his canoe was trifling, and quickly passed Marguerite and Louis flew along the narrow foot path, reached the shore, and were in the arms of ——— Mecumeh and his fierce companions. Entreaties and resistance were alike vain. Resistance was made, with a manly spirit, by young Louis, who drew a knife from the girdle of one of the Indians, and attempted to plunge it into the bosom of Mecumeh, who was roughly binding his wampum belt over Marguerite's mouth, to deaden the sound of her screams. The uncle wrested the knife from him, and smiled proudly on him, as if he recognised in the brave boy a scion from his own stock.

"The Indians had two canoes; Marguerite was conveyed to one, Louis to the other—and both canoes were rowed into the Oswegatchie, and up the stream as fast as it was possible to impel them against the current of the river.

"Not a word nor cry escaped the boy: he seemed intent on some purpose, and when the canoe approached near the shore, he took off a military cap he wore, and threw it so skilfully that it lodged, where he meant it should, on the branch of a tree which projected over the water. There was a long white feather in the cap. The Indians had observed the boy's movement—they held up their oars for a moment, and seemed to consult whether they should return and remove the cap; but after a moment, they again dashed their oars in the water, and proceeded forward. They continued rowing for a few miles, and then landed; hid their canoes behind some trees on the river's bank, and plunged into the woods with their prisoners. It seems to have been their intention to have returned to their canoes in the morning, and they had not proceeded far from the shore, when they kindled a fire, and prepared some food, and offered a share of it to Marguerite and Louis. Poor Marguerite, as you may suppose, had no mind to eat; but Louis, saith tradition, ate as heartily as if he had been safe within the walls of the fort. After the supper, the Indians stretched themselves before the fire, but not till they had taken the precaution to bind Marguerite to a tree, and to compel Louis to lie down in the arms of his uncle Mecumeh. Neither of the prisoners, as you may imagine, closed their eyes. Louis kept his fixed on his mother. She sat upright beside an oak tree; the cord was fastened around her waist, and bound around the tree, which had been blasted by lightning; the moon poured its beams through the naked branches upon her face, convulsed with the agony of despair and fear. With one hand she held a crucifix to her lips; the other was on her rosary. The sight of his mother in such a situation, stirred up daring thoughts in the bosom of the heroic boy—but he lay powerless in his uncle's naked brawny arms. He tried to disengage himself, but at the slightest movement, Mecumeh, though still sleeping, seemed conscious, and strained him closer to him. At last the strong sleep, that in the depth of the night steeps the senses in utter forgetfulness, overpowered him—his arms relaxed their hold, and dropped beside him, and left Louis free.

"He rose cautiously, looked for one instant on the Indians, and assured himself they all slept profoundly. He then possessed himself of Mecumeh's knife, which lay at his feet, and severed the cord that bound his mother to the tree. Neither of them spoke a word—but with the least possible sound they resumed the way by which they had come from the

shore. Louis in the confidence, and Marguerite with the faint hope, of reaching it before they were overtaken.

"You may imagine how often the poor mother, timid as a fawn, was startled by the evening breeze stirring the leaves; but the boy bounded forward as if there were neither fear nor danger in the world.

"They had nearly attained the margin of the river, where Louis meant to launch one of the canoes and drop down the current, when the Indian yell resounding through the woods, struck on their ears. They were missed, pursued, and escape was impossible. Marguerite, panic-struck, sunk to the ground. Nothing could check the career of Louis. 'On—on, mother,' he cried, 'to the shore—to the shore.' She rose and instinctively followed her boy. The sound of pursuit came nearer and nearer. They reached the shore, and there beheld three canoes coming swiftly up the river. Animated with hope, Louis screamed the watch word of the garrison, and was answered by his father's voice.

"The possibility of escape, and the certain approach of her husband, infused new life into Marguerite. 'Your father cannot see us,' she said, 'as we stand here in the shade of the trees; hide yourself in that thicket; I will plunge into the water.' Louis crouched under the bushes, and was completely hidden by an overhanging grape-vine, while his mother advanced a few steps into the water and stood erect, where she could be distinctly seen. A shout from the canoes apprised her that she was recognised; and at the same moment, the Indians, who had now reached the shore, rent the air with their cries of rage and defiance. They stood for a moment, as if deliberating what next to do; Mecumeh maintained an undaunted and resolved air—but with his followers the aspect of armed men, and a force thrice their number, had its usual effect. They fled. He looked after them, cried 'shame!' and then, with a desperate yell, leaped into the water, and stood beside Marguerite. The canoes were now within a few yards.—He put his knife to her bosom—'The daughter of Tecumseh,' he said, 'should have died by the judgment of our warriors, but now by her brother's hand must she perish:' and he drew back his arm to give vigor to the fatal stroke, when an arrow pierced his own breast, and he fell insensible at his sister's side. A moment after Marguerite was in the arms of her husband, and Louis, with his bow unstrung, bounded from the shore, and was received in his father's canoe; and the wild shores rung with the acclamations of the soldiers, while his father's tears of pride and joy were poured like rain upon his cheek.

"The stranger paused, and Edward breathed one long breath, expressive of the interest with which he had listened to the tale; and then said, 'You have not told us, sir, how the commandant was so fortunate as to pursue in the right direction.'

"He returned soon after Marguerite's departure, and of course was at no loss to determine that she had been taken in the toils of her brother. He explored the mouth of the Oswegatchie, thinking it possible that the savages might have left their canoes moored there, and taken to the land. Louis's cap and feather caught his eye, and furnished him a clue. You have now my whole story, concluded the stranger; and though I cannot vouch for its accuracy, many similar circumstances must have occurred, while this country was a wilderness, and my tradition is at least supported by probability."

ART. V.—*Lionel Lincoln, or the Leaguer of Boston. By the Author of the Pioneers, Pilot, &c.* New-York: 1825. Charles Wiley. 2 vols. pp. 533.

The principal aims of criticism in the journals that come to us from abroad, appear to be, to anticipate and to modify general opinion in relation to the works and the subjects discussed in them. They always aspire to at least the judicial, and almost always to the legislative function in literature. It is not enough for the Aristarchuses of these lettered aristocracies to apply sometimes a mistaken, sometimes a supposed, and sometimes a distorted rule; but in defiance of the principles of all sound governments, in the republic of which the government should be the soundest, they create the very code that they administer, and judge the applicant for literary justice, by a system of *ex post facto* laws, undiscoverable through any human ingenuity by the individual whose practice they should have directed. It is not surprising, in this state of things, that great varieties and inconsistencies should be found in the progress of the same work; that caprice should contradict caprice, and that one writer's partialities, antipathies, and prejudices should counteract another's; that judgments previously pronounced should be forgotten, when new ones on the same subject are to be declared, or when the same author presents himself at successive periods before the same tribunal;—or that even the safe policy of criticism should change, as the minor becomes a man, or as the loyal colony passes through rebellion and independence to rivalry and triumph. Indeed, as long as this assumption is maintained, instances will never be wanting, like those of Lord Byron and of America, of these arbiters of literary destiny beginning in "Ercles' vein," and ending with "roaring you as gently as any sucking dove."

A wiser, and certainly a less dangerous course, would be, for a body of critics, however originally established, whether *autoclete* or regularly nominated and elected, to consider themselves, in the exercise of their public duties, as the representatives of the reading community,—to regard the sentiments expressed by thinking men, where the majority is overwhelming, (particularly in all matters of taste, in which opinions incessantly and innocently clash,) almost as the instructions of constituents,—and where the division of parties is obvious and decided, at least to state the conflicting opinions, let their own be what they may. We would not, by this, be understood as suggesting the idea of relinquishing our claim to the casting vote in those innumerable

questions of criticism where the equities of taste are equal, or even of compromising our cathedretical rights, on any occasion which may require their vindication. Far from us be so tame a concession of our prerogative, and so cowardly a desertion of our duty; especially while our country, which bids fair to furnish the chief materials for their exercise, is yet in the earliest stage of its literary boyhood, the very age for castigation. Our object is simply to allude to the advantages which the critic may derive from the consultation of public opinion, and to profess our respect for that tribunal, which, after all, is the one from which must eventually emanate, every benefit that the author can anticipate, and all the severities from which he has occasion to shrink.

The book of which the title is at the head of this article, has been in the hands, probably, of all who are our readers, and certainly of thousands who are not so, long enough for a full and fair discussion of its excellencies and defects to have taken place, and to have allowed the tumult of spirits which attends the early perusal of a work expected with so much impatience, to subside into a calm appreciation of its merits. It is obvious, then, that our remarks can do little to affect opinions in relation to it, which, independently of them, must have been already formed. We cannot, however, resign our prescriptive right to pronounce our judgment in a case so peculiarly within our province; nor are we willing to deny ourselves the honest triumph of welcoming a production which not only is, but what is no less important to us as Americans, is allowed abroad to be, a work of undoubted genius. Unquestionable, however, as are its claims to be so considered, perhaps no book has appeared among us, and been universally read, which has given rise to a division of sentiments respecting its merits, so marked, and so easily assignable to different classes of minds. Those who read merely to be detained by variety of incident, or to be amused with vivid and energetic dialogue, or to be excited by highly wrought catastrophe, complain, when they have concluded it, of its general deficiency in all these particulars. Those who require original, and strongly marked, and completely sustained character, are less disappointed, although by no means thoroughly satisfied. The verbal critic, the mere "aucceps syllabarum," utters an exclamation of loyal horror over the countless instances in which the laws of the Code Priscian are irreverently violated. Who then, it may be asked, are the readers that allow it to be a successful effort to maintain, and even to elevate the previously acquired reputation of its author? They are those of the highest order. They

are those who are capable of being delighted with a fresh and full infusion of the political tone of the most doubtful period of their own national history; who can glow with grateful exultation when they see a faithful picture, by the pencil of a native artist, of the scenes of their fathers' struggles for their own inheritance, which had hitherto baffled all attempts to give them any other interest than that which they derive from being the starting post to the goal of freedom. It should alone be enough to satisfy a craving for the praise of power and originality, even as inordinate as that betrayed by the author of the book before us in its preface, that he has been the first among us to dress in the evergreens of a fertile fancy, that consecrated spot where the most glorious feat of our independence was originally achieved, —on which the loftiest monument of the age is almost ready to be reared,—and over which the proudest eloquence of our country is preparing to pour its charm.

We shall proceed to justify, in detail, some of these preliminary remarks. And first for the plot. The hero of the story is a Bostonian by birth, educated in England, who on arriving at man's estate, returns to his native town as a major in the British service. On his return voyage, a stranger on board acquires, by some secret sympathy, a mysterious influence over him. This stranger, who afterwards proves to be his father, excites in the earlier part of the narrative, a powerful interest, from his seeming to be governed in all his actions by that master-spirit of the times in the colonies, which the author has displayed with great force and truth in some of the subordinate characters. This interest, however, totally vanishes with respect to the stranger, when we are informed that he is intended to be represented as a maniac; and we feel almost sorry that we had ever indulged it, when we find, (vol. 2. p. 216.) the reasons of his apparent devotion to the American cause, and of the "eternal hatred to that country from which he sprung, and those laws under which he was born," in which he invokes his son, at his mother's grave, to join him,—to be simply that in England, bedlamites are confined, or, to use his own words, that "an innocent and unoffending man can be levelled with the beasts of the field, and be made to rave even at his Maker, in the bitterness of his sufferings." The cause of this lunacy, of which Lionel himself is meant to seem to have a spice, is partly a hereditary tendency to the malady, but chiefly a shade thrown over the character of his deceased wife by his aunt, Mrs. Lechmere, as unaccountable an old lady as any of whom either romance or real life has ever yielded a specimen. This obsolete female,

(the aunt, it is to be remembered, of the father of Lionel, whose own years are beyond the age of man,) enters the book in hysterics, falls out of one fit into another through the whole course of the story, and makes her final exit in violent convulsions. Her ruling passion is represented to be a desire to connect her own family with that of Lincoln, which appears to govern her from generation to generation. Her first experiment, with this view, is a long-sighted attempt upon the father of Lionel, before he is known as the heir of the house of Lincoln, in favor of her own daughter. This falls through, however,—the lady attaching herself to Colonel Dynevor, and becoming the mother of Cecil, and the gentleman first seeking an intimacy more to his taste with Abigail Pray, (a pretty domestic of his aunt's, who becomes the mother of Job Pray,) and then disappointing her views for ever, by marrying her god-daughter, Priscilla Lechmere, afterwards the mother of Lionel. All Mrs. Lechmere's visions of glory now give place to her thirst for revenge upon the being who has dispelled them. Accordingly, during his stay in England, where he goes to secure the title and estates of his family, which fall to him just at this crisis, she prepares, in conjunction with Abigail Pray, a plot to convince him that his wife, whose death takes place before his return, had been faithless during his absence. Their contrivance succeeds, and the reason of Sir Lionel is by these means sufficiently unsettled to enable Mrs. Lechmere to procure his subsequent confinement in England, as a lunatic, from which he does not escape until he accompanies his son, although unknown to him, on his expedition to the colonies. The changes wrought in him by time, suffering, and disease, are such, that neither Abigail Pray, in whose house he takes up his abode, nor Mrs. Lechmere, whose death he predicts, although hints enough are frequently thrown out to quicken their penetration, seems even to suspect his identity. In the mean while, the presence of Lionel in the house of Mrs. Lechmere, revives her former passion; and the charms of her grand-daughter Cecil achieve the triumph of which she had been forced by experience to despair. On Lionel's recovery from a wound received in the battle of Breed's Hill, a moment of tenderness into which Cecil is betrayed by her sympathy for her cousin's protracted sufferings, leads, (in the language of the author,) to Lionel's "favoring her with a very particular communication," and on applying to Mrs. Lechmere for her consent, she urges their union on the same evening. The young lady, who appears determined to have as much ceremonial about the matter as the circumstances will admit, insists upon being mar-

ried in church. Accordingly, in the midst of a violent snow-storm, the bridegroom goes himself after the parson, and, at ten o'clock, that the bride might not be exposed to the stare of too numerous a congregation, she and her attendants are driven to the spot in her lover's 'tom-pung;' the benediction is pronounced, in spite of a gigantic shadow upon the walls which at first threatens to forbid the banns, and Lionel and his wife adjourn to the house of Mrs. Lechmere just in time to witness her death,—to listen to the mysterious denunciations of the stranger, who is as yet known by no other name than Ralph,—and to overhear the busy preparations for their supper that are making by their cousin Miss Agnes Danforth, more extensive, perhaps, than was necessary for a party of three persons, the appetites of two of whom, at least, might be naturally supposed to be somewhat impaired by the antecedent occurrences of the evening. This happy consummation, however, does not take place; for when Cecil, under the influence of some indefinite apprehension, goes to her husband's apartment in search of him—

> Alas! he was not to be found,
> Nor at that hour could any thing be guessed
> But that he was not.

We have examined diligently into all the subsequent facts in the book, and have endeavored not to overlook any of what the author calls "the circumstances more probable than facts," in the hope of finding some explanation of Lionel's strange elopement at this particular conjuncture. The only probable solution of it, however, that we have been able to discover, is a pious purpose of visiting his mother's grave—a purpose that would not have been likely to grow cool by adding a single day to the score, at least, of years during which the execution of it had been deferred. It cannot certainly be accounted for by the supposition of a malignant exertion of the mysterious influence of Ralph, after the shadowy approbation of their nuptials which he exhibited upon the ceiling of the church. Cecil, however, in spite of the questionable appearance of this apparent abandonment, prosecutes her search after her husband, until she finds him, at last, a prisoner to the rebels at Cambridge. She is accompanied on this excursion by an "unknown man," who, introducing himself to one of Lionel's friends, volunteers his services to her, and afterwards proves to be the keeper of Sir Lionel, and pursues his victim with unaccountable pertinacity, even after the death of Mrs. Lechmere, from whom the only intelligible persecution of him has previously proceeded.

The escape of Lionel is contrived by his father in such a manner as to exchange him for the said keeper, for whom the old gentleman appears to entertain a most cordial horror. On their return he conducts his son, still unknown to him, to the spot where his mother is interred, and there makes a last and successful effort to induce him to desert the British for the American arms.

We are now introduced to the great catastrophe of the story. Job Pray is disposed of by a complication of maladies arising partly from starvation,—partly from the effects of the burns and bruises inflicted by the revenge of a mob of infuriated soldiers whose captain he had shot in a skirmish—and partly from a surfeit of ham, administered to him during the early stages of the small pox in the presence of his mother, a professed nurse, by an epicurean captain, whose *gourmandise* and good humor make a conspicuous figure in the book, and who first prepares this salutary prescription for his patient over a fire made of a bunch of oakum and his own wooden leg, and then partakes of it himself in the midst of a scene of squalid horror that might have appalled the most valiant of trencher-men. The leading characters then all assemble on the stage. The details of the family history are stated by Abigail Pray; but the great mystery of the connexion between Ralph and Lionel is cleared up, after all, by Cecil herself, who appears to have possessed the secret all along with most unfeminine composure, and who discloses it at last only to prevent the violence threatened by her husband against his unknown father. The keeper, in the mean time, escapes from the durance so ingeniously shifted upon him by his patient, bursts the door of the apartment where all these events are occurring, frees Abigail Pray from the fury of her "sometime" lover, and in the struggle which then takes place between them, whether from malignity, or revenge, or for hire, or in self-defence, we confess we know not, puts an end almost to the story and quite to Sir Lionel, by stabbing him on the spot. The filial piety of Lionel subsequently rewards this man for having so dexterously put the old gentleman out of his misery, by directing his friends in America to place him in a situation where his "future comfort might be amply secured," after having for a long time "importuned him, without success," to return to his own country, and receive from the supporter of the honors of the house of Lincoln the meed of his exemplary devotion to the interests of his family.

If there be any truth in this sketch of the bare outline of the story, it cannot be denied that it exhibits many signal violations both of probability and consistency. We are aware,

however, much as we may deplore the fact, that the novelists of the day no more hold themselves bound to preserve integrity of incident in their writings, than the dramatists do to regard the unities of time and place in the productions which they submit to the stage; and that the examples of Ariosto, and Cervantes, and Scott, are as much at hand to justify the one, as that of Shakspeare is to vindicate the other of these bands of licensed transgressors of literary decorum. It should be insisted, nevertheless, where the writer of fiction exempts himself from the trammels of these salutary restraints upon his fancy, that he should give his readers the benefit of his prescriptive privilege in the variety, and spirit, and strength of his separate incidents—in the power with which he prepares each crisis in his story—in energy of dialogue—in vividness of description—in a display of all the graces for which his faculties are left free by this convenient enfranchisement. Our author has undoubtedly purchased his exemption from the laws of the severer school of writers of his class, by a conformity in the main with this fair condition; and we are not disposed to quarrel with his deviations, although they are certainly, in some cases, unusually wide, when no great loss is actually sustained, and when most of the purposes of pleasure and profit for which we undertook our voyage together, are perhaps by that very means more speedily, if not more completely fulfilled.

A number of minor inconsistencies in the circumstances may be detected by any reader who is not too completely absorbed in the general current of the narrative to remark the impossibilities in nature, that are scattered over different parts of it. A moon appears to be "shining on, shining on" with exemplary constancy, through almost every scene, quite superior to the caprices that are usually attributed to that changeable satellite. A disease which is known to be rather deliberate in its communication, is gifted with the power of almost instantaneous infection; and in its most nauseating period, leaves the patient open to the solicitations of a singularly uncalculating appetite. A wounded officer, with a ball remaining in his body, is kept for upwards of seven months in alternate states of torpor and delirium, by anodynes administered at the discretion of his valet; and then, when the ball is extracted, and the effects of the opiate have ceased, awakes suddenly, in a condition to enter instantly upon the arduous duties of a lover, and the important responsibilities of a husband; and even to perform, in the worst of weather, a pedestrian excursion of some length,

in the course of which he is engaged in at least one scuffle, sufficient to form rather a serious trial for strength that could not be supposed to be yet perfectly re-established. But the incongruity that has most incomprehensibly escaped the vigilance of the author, is the momentary apparition of the snow-storm at the wedding; which seems to be "just shown" for the purpose of exaggerating the fearful features of the scene; and then to be "put up again," lest the handling of it should freeze his invention. However this may be, no more is heard of it. It opposes no obstacle, either to Lionel's expedition or to Cecil's pursuit; and on the next evening, or at furthest the next but one, she prosecutes her path over "faded herbage;" they hear the clatter of feet on the frozen ground; they ride in wagons, of which the wheels are unimpeded; and to crown all, they discover a spot in the church-yard from which the shroud of nature had not been withdrawn, and sit upon grave stones which must have been covered with the most comfortless of cushions. Now, may it not be asked without captiousness, whether all such blemishes cannot easily be avoided? And if they can, ought they to be allowed to escape? When they are perceived, and some of them could hardly be overlooked by the most cursory of readers, what is their effect? The charm of that part of the story which they are permitted to disfigure, is, for the moment, destroyed. Our attention becomes fastened upon some particular fact which is not in the order of things possible, and our temporary illusion with respect to the whole vanishes at once. We are affected (to illustrate the greater by the less) as by the occurrence of some tame phrase of common life, in the dialogue of intense passion, and cannot forgive the inadvertence that has dispelled our delightful dream. It is, in short, as essential to our interest, that the descriptive writer should show us that he sees what he paints, as it is to our emotion, that the eloquent speaker should convince us that he feels what he utters.

The characters introduced into this story, are, with a few exceptions, strikingly drawn and spiritedly sustained. The standard parts of the lady and the lover are respectably filled by Lionel and Cecil; and the declaration scene on Lionel's recovery, is certainly not without tenderness. Miss Danforth, although she seems to contribute little to the conduct of the narrative, is quite a fair specimen of the spirit of our countrywomen in the days when patriotism was of no sex. Mrs. Lechmere is decidedly overstrained. Ralph has too much method in his madness, to be allowed all the privileges of that condition, and there appears to be no sufficient cause for all the effects which he is made to

produce. The Flibbertigibbet of the tale, Job Pray, is a happy attempt at one of those beings endowed with ubiquity, omniscience, and fatuity, which the practice of modern novelists has made almost as essential to a regularly constructed production of this class, as the *Arlecchino* is to the Italian *Opera Buffa.* His shrewdness, however, would frequently make us forget the light in which the author intends us to consider him, were we not repeatedly recalled to the remembrance of it by the epithets of 'simpleton,' 'fool,' 'idiot,' and 'changeling,' which he applies so unceremoniously, and sometimes we cannot help thinking so unfairly, to this boy of twenty-seven. But, in spite of this little incongruity, Job is interesting throughout. His courage, his fidelity, his constant exultation in being "a Boston boy," his unshaken confidence, that "the people will show the grannies the law," the delight with which he dwells upon the idea of "a stir in Old Funnel," and many other happily imagined and ably developed traits, make him, altogether, a successful delineation of a character the most difficult to draw, because, as a whole, it is without a model in nature. Abigail Pray is the only other leading personage, and she appears to be of little use but to explain, in the catastrophe, some of the mysteries of the story, which might, perhaps, have been explained as well without her.

Among the subordinate characters, Polwarth is the most conspicuous, and he certainly discharges his various functions of captain, companion, caterer, and cook, with great consistency, and, sometimes, with infinite humor. The ingenuity with which he draws all his illustrations of every topic, from the savory subject on which he delights to dwell, is, in many cases, admirable; but there is often an exaggeration about him approaching to caricature. We mean, for example, where he is made to administer his uncouth and unwholesome prescription to the dying Job, and to lecture the conscience-stricken and repentant Abigail, at her last gasp, upon the excellencies and the enjoyments of eating.

To one class of individuals, whom the period and the scene of the story naturally introduce, we do not think that the author has done that justice which we had a right to expect from the subject itself, and from his own unquestioned powers. We refer to those from whom specimens might have been furnished of the yankee character and dialect. The instances of the old woman at Cambridge, the old man in the wagon, Allen, and above all, Seth Sage, although slight in themselves, are excellent as far as they go, and show what might have been done if pains had been taken to elaborate that part of the work. Why were we

not presented with one of a higher order and on a greater scale? Was it too much to demand of the inventor of that prince of whalers, the inimitable Tom Coffin, that he should extend his observations to another sphere, and not overlook the opportunity that lay so invitingly before him, of producing, at full length, a rugged yankee hero of the Stark or Putnam school?

We shall not descend to the invidious office of enumerating the oversights in mere style and the use of language, which are to be found so frequently in the pages of this work. The author, in his preface, has so contumaciously disclaimed all critical jurisdiction, that we fear it would be of little benefit to him, as it certainly would be of little interest to others, to point out his instances of baldness or mannerism in using some favorite word on subjects entirely inconsistent with each other—of mistake, in applying common words otherwise than in their common and only intelligible acceptation—of affectation and inelegance, in using his verbs in the interrogative form, invariably without auxiliaries—and of carelessness, if not clumsiness, in leaving his meaning so entangled in the web of his construction, that our struggles to free it to our own comprehension, have been sometimes entirely unsuccessful. We regret this the more, because the author's popularity is likely to carry his example into precedent; and we are unwilling that our subsequent writers should be allowed to avail themselves of the sanction of his authority for vices in style, which in spite of his candid confession of having long since forgotten the little that colleges and (some may think he might have added) that schools have taught him, must, for the most part, have been committed rather from indolence than ignorance. We do not wish, however, to dwell upon this ungrateful topic; and, resting our hopes of his farther amendment in this respect, upon the improvement which he has regularly exhibited from "Precaution" to the present work, rather than upon any expectation of furnishing him with "a single hint which his humble powers can improve," we shall proceed to those features of the latter which we have been able to contemplate with unalloyed admiration.

The writer of the religious or of the historical novel, has difficulties to contend with, peculiar to the walk of composition which he has selected; and unless the purposes of his work be blended in those nice proportions which it is the lot of few exactly to attain, the lighter reader will skim over the fiction, and throw aside the remainder with disgust, while the graver one will prefer to deduce his morality from *real* sermons, and to seek his knowledge in the authorized and established repositories of

facts. The composition of the historical novel is encumbered with still another and a greater embarrassment. The author is obliged to regard, in the invention of his characters and incidents, all the proprieties of reality, and of that very reality in which he has placed his scene, with far more strictness here, than in fictions where no measure is immediately at hand to detect and to estimate his extravagance. The circumstances and characters which are known, have the effect of familiar objects in a landscape, which not only enable you to judge of the general perspective, but to ascertain the magnitude of others, which the artist, in the absence of these convenient tests of nature, might with impunity exaggerate or distort. The writer of such a work, then, has stretched his imaginations upon a Procrustean bed of his own making, and must force them all to correspond to it, at whatever risk of dislocating the limbs, or mutilating the stature of these children of his brain. In surmounting all these difficulties, the author of this book has been eminently successful. He has thrown himself fearlessly into the midst of scenes, fresh in the personal experience of many who are now alive, and destined to be eternally fresh in the traditional recollections of millions who have not yet begun to live. He has transfused into his narrative the sturdy spirit of those times, when every citizen was a soldier, and every soldier a patriot. Even in the humble personages whom he has chosen to illustrate this spirit, he has exhibited with admirable consistency, the sagacity with which the colonists discovered, and the shrewdness with which they explained their rights, as well as the jealousy with which they guarded, and the stoutness with which they defended them. The pettiness and homeliness of the details of these struggles, as compared with the larger operations of European warfare, which have made them to be usually considered unfit themes for the imaginative writer, have not induced him to shrink from the battle grounds on which our freedom was born, or to pass them by as unsusceptible of the decorations, or unworthy of the gifts of genius. In the skirmish at Lexington, the retreat from Concord, and the battle of Breed's or Bunker's Hill, he has fairly transplanted us to the periods and the spots which he describes; and with that rare felicity, both of selection and coloring, which is at once the triumph and the test of talent, he has made us see, and hear, and feel all the stir of the glorious strife which has led to consequences ineffably more glorious. But it would be tame and even unfair, to estimate the value of this part of the story by the interest which it may create in the present generation of readers. It deserves to be considered with

more extended views. It deserves to be appreciated by the effects which it must produce, as a portion of our national literature, upon the young and ardent lover of his country, in those days when distance of time shall have somewhat blended and softened the ruder features of reality, which now we can hardly help associating with events so near us both in time and place. How much more delightful to an author, must be the consciousness that he is destined, perhaps, to contribute to the formation of the future character of a part of his countrymen, by mingling his own productions with their earliest and most sacred national associations, than the barren and temporary triumph of having succeeded at last in wringing from the foreign arbiters of literary fate, by a studied and constant conformity to their prejudices, the wretched privilege of literary naturalization. To this consciousness we think Mr. Cooper has an undeniable right; and however our duty may have compelled us to notice the minor blemishes of his book, he has no readers who regard with more complacency than ourselves, what he has already done, or who await with more earnest expectation, what we hope he feels himself bound to continue to do.

Art. VI.—*The Journal of Madam Knight, and Rev. Mr. Buckingham, from the Original Manuscripts, written in* 1704 *and* 1710. New-York. Wilder and Campbell. 1825.

The publication of an old American manuscript is too great a rarity not to be especially entitled to our notice. And here is one so old, so very old, that the great grandchildren of the authoress (if she ever had any) must have died before its publication. We candidly acknowledge, that we felt, at first, unwilling to give credit to so improbable a story, but a sight of the original, with which we have been favored, vanquished all our doubts. It is a genuine antique, a manuscript of unquestionable yellowness, of most manifest fragility, and withal, of a "very ancient and fish-like smell." The antiquarians of Europe may turn up their noses, as they please, at archives but a hundred and twenty years old; we can tell them, that we felt as much delight at the sight of this relic of our fabulous ages, as Champollion must have felt when his eyes first glanced upon the hieroglyphic records of the Pharaohs of Egypt.

The manuscript was written, it appears, in the latter part of the year 1704, seventy-two before the revolutionary war, and is a faithful copy from the diary of a journey from Boston to New-York, undertaken, and (after many wonderful escapes)

successfully accomplished, by a very worthy, well-informed, and enterprising woman, of the name of Madam Knight. She was so called, we are informed, out of respect to her character, according to a custom, which, it seems, was once common in New-England. The Bostonians have no reason to be ashamed of Madam Knight. She must have been no common woman, who could intrepidly encounter the hardships and the hazards of a long and tedious journey, two hundred and fifty miles of which were over a tract as little travelled as the country of the Pottowattomies. Who can help admiring the fearlessness, with which, even in that dark age, she speaks against the bigoted inhabitants of Connecticut, who were so "very Riggid in their Administrations towards such as their Lawes made Offenders, even to a harmless Kiss, or Innocent Merriment among Young people." With how much political sagacity does she declare, that the annual election of governor is "a blessing the good people of Connecticut can never be thankful enough for." How much to her credit is the gratitude with which she speaks of "the wonderful Civility of the Honble Govern^{r} Winthrop, Esq. A Gentleman of an Ancient and Honourable Family," who commanded her to stay and "take a supper with him." And who has described, with more spirit and fidelity, the manners and the language of the primitive yankees, than the writer of this journal has done, in her lively sketches of the unmannerly Debb Billinges, the petulant Jemima, and the gawky country Bumpkin, with his Joane Tawdry sweetheart?

Madam Knight set out upon her formidable tour on the second day of October, 1704. She appears to have experienced much difficulty in finding a man who would undertake to conduct her through these unfrequented regions. At last she finds the wife of a tavern-keeper, who offers, for a large sum, to let her son John go as guide upon this perilous expedition. Madam Knight demurs to the consideration-money.

"Then John shan't go, sais shee. No, indeed, shan't hee; And held forth at that rate a long time, that I began to fear I was got among the Quaking tribe, beleeving not a Limbertong'd sister among them could out do Madm. Hostes.

"Upon this, to my no small surprise, son John arrose, and gravely demanded what I would give him to go with me? Give you, sais I, are you John? Yes, sais he, for want of a Better; And behold! this John look't as old as my Host, and perhaps had bin a man in the last Century. Well, Mr. John, sais I, make your demands. Why, half a pss. of eight and a dram, sais John. I agreed, and gave him a Dram (now) in hand to bind the bargain."—pp. 10, 11.

After a long and tiresome night-ride, through swamps almost

impassable, they finally arrived at Billinges, twelve miles from Dedham. On entering the tavern, Madam Knight is welcomed with the following salutation from the eldest daughter of the family. It is a fine specimen of choice yankee, and proves the great antiquity of that interesting dialect.

"Law for me—what in the world brings You here at this time a night? —I never see a woman on the Rode so Dreadfull late, in all the days of my varsall life. Who are You? Where are You going? I'me scar'd out of my witts—with much of the same Kind. I stood agast, Prepareing to reply, when in comes my Guide—to him Madam turn'd Rorering out: Lawful heart, John, is it You?—how de do! Where in the world are you going with this woman? Who is she? John made no Ansr. but sat down in the corner, fumbled out his black Junk, and saluted that instead of Debb."—pp. 12, 13.

Madam Knight is at last admitted, and is shown to a "little back lento," filled with the bedstead, where she goes to sleep with "her head upon a sad-coloured pillow." The next day, about two in the afternoon, she arrives at another inn.

"Here, having called for something to eat, ye woman bro't in a Twisted thing like a cable, but something whiter; and laying it on the bord, tugg'd for life to bring it into a capacity to spread; wch having wth great pains accomplished, she served in a dish of Pork and Cabage."—pp. 14, 15.

The "sauce" (meaning the cabbage) serves Madam Knight "the whole day after for a Cudd." The next day, our indefatigable traveller arrives at a river, which she crosses "in a Cannoo so very small and shallow," that, for fear of upsetting, she did not venture "so much as to lodg her tongue a hair's breadth more on one side of her mouth than tother." We defy the ingenuity of modern wits to give a better illustration of delicate equilibrium. After passing through sundry dismal forests, and descending divers break-neck precipices, she arrives at last at a "very firce and hazzardos river." Across this she valiantly swims her horse, and soon gets safe to the other side, which is the beginning of the Narragansett country. Here she traverses many "dolesome woods," until she gets up to the top of a hill, from which she sees the rising moon, or, as she more poetically expresseth it, "the Kind Conductress of the night just Advancing above the Horisontall Line." At the sight of this "fair Planett," she falls into a rapture, and is inspired with "many very diverting tho'ts," which she has carefully preserved in metre, for the benefit of posterity. She gets no sleep that night, "because of the clamour of some of the Town tope-ers in the next room, who were in strong debate concerning the Signifycation of

the word Narragansett." One of the topers uttered his etymological decrees with "such a Roreing voice, and such Thundering blows with the fist of wickedness on the Table," that it pierced her very head. Our afflicted traveller philosophically consoles herself with the fortunate recollection of a friend of hers, who was once kept awake a whole night by the disputations of a country lieutenant, a sergeant, an ensign, and a deacon, "contriving how to bring a triangle into a square." The day following, she arrives at Mr. Devill's house of entertainment, where "no, or none," is all the answer she can get from "the old Sophister." Having vented her disappointment in some vituperative stanzas, she comes to Paukataug river, and stops until the tide falls, at a "Misirable hutt." At Stonington, which she reaches the next day, she is joined by an old man and his daughter, "on a sorry lean jade, wth only a Bagg under her for a pillion." The following is too graphic, and too characteristic, to omit:

"Wee made Good speed along, wch made poor Jemima make many a sow'r face, the mare being a very hard trotter; and after many a hearty and bitter Oh, she at length Low'd out: Lawful Heart, father! this bare mare hurts mee Dingeely, I'me direfull sore I vow; with many words to that purpose: poor Child, sais Gaffer—she us't to serve your mother so. I don't care how mother us't to do, quoth Jemima, in a pasionate tone. At which the old man Laugh't, and kik't his Jade o' the side, which made her Jolt ten times harder.

"About seven that Evening, we come to New-London Ferry: here, by reason of a very high wind, we mett with great difficulty in getting over—the Boat tos't exceedingly, and our Horses cappered at a very surprising Rate, and set us all in a fright; especially poor Jemima, who desired her father to say so jack to the Jade, to make her stand. But the careless parent, taking no notice of her repeated desires, She Roared out in a Passionate manner: Pray suth father, Are you deaf? Say so Jack to the Jade, I tell you. The Dutiful Parent obeys; saying so Jack, so Jack, as gravely as if hee'd bin to saying Catechise after Young Miss, who with her fright look't of all coullers in ye Rain Bow."—pp. 31, 32.

The next day Madam Knight leaves New-London under the protection of "a young gentleman," whom she pays well for his trouble, and prosecutes her toilsome journey towards New-Haven. During the process of her approximation to this place, she encounters divers moving accidents. She rides through "Rodes Incumbred wth Rocks and mountainos passages;"—she is thrown from her horse in going over a bridge;—she pays sixpence for a dinner, "wch was only Smell;"—and in answer to an inquiry about the road, she is told to "ride on a little further, and turn down by the corner of Uncle Sam's lott." From all these jeopardies, she providentially escapes, and arrives at

New-Haven about two in the afternoon. Here she informs herself of the manners and customs of the people, (some curious instances of which she gives,) and is moreover told "a pleasant story about an Indian, a black man, and a pair of justices," which the reader will find preserved for him in the book. The Narragansett Indians were "the most salvage of all salvages that she had ever seen;" they mourned for the dead, and were very fond of rum.

We pass by the curious specimen of New-Haven *patois*, which seems to have altered very little for the last hundred and fifty years. The behaviour of the simpering Bumpkin, and the curtsying Joane, at the merchant's store, is described with great spirit, and shows how steady have been the habits of the simple rustics of Connecticut. On the morning of the sixth of December, (having stayed at New-Haven six weeks "to rest and recruit herself," before she proceeded on her journey,) Madam Knight sets out for New-York, reaches "Northwalk," about noon, and arrives at Rye about nine o'clock at night. After a vigorous but unsuccessful attempt on the part of a degenerate Mounseer to fabricate a fricasee for her, Madam Knight goes indignantly to bed, but finds it impossible to sleep for the hardness of the husks, and the shortness of the covering. "On the strength of a good breakfast," however, which she gets at New-Rochelle, she reaches New-York the next day about an hour before sunset.

The description of New-York and its inhabitants is, as far as it goes, extremely diverting; we only regret that there is not more of it. The following is a specimen:

"They have Vendues very frequently, and make their Earnings very well by them, for they treat with good Liquor Liberally, and the Customers Drink as Liberally and Generally pay for't as well, by paying for that which they Bidd up Briskly for, after the sack has gone plentifully about; tho' sometimes good penny worths are got there. Their Diversions in the Winter is Riding Sleys about three or four Miles out of Town, where they have Houses of entertainment at a place called the Bowery, and some go to friends Houses who handsomely treat them. Mr. Burroughs cary'd his spous and Daughter and myself out to one Madame Dowes, a Gentlewoman that lived at a farm House, who gave us a handsome Entertainment of five or six Dishes and choice Beer and metheglin, Cyder, &c. all which she said was the produce of her farm. I believe we mett 50 or 60 sleys that day—they fly with great swiftness, and some are so furious that they'le turn out of the path for none except a Loaden Cart. Nor do they spare for any diversion the place affords, and are sociable to a degree, they'r Tables being as free to their Naybours as to themselves."—pp. 55, 56.

We have not room for any part of the catalogue of miseries

which Madam Knight encountered on her return. She got safe home to Boston on the third day of March, 1705, having performed in five months, (inclusive of stoppages to rest and recruit herself,) a journey which now, with the same allowance, would scarcely require as many days. Her relations and friends came flocking in to welcome her, and to hear the story of her "travails and transactions," and "now" she concludes—

"I cannot fully express my Joy and Satisfaction; But desire sincearly to adore my Great Benefactor for thus graciously carrying forth and returning in safety his unworthy handmaid."

Art. VII.—*The New-York Medical and Physical Journal, No. XIII.* Edited by John B. Beck, M. D., *Fellow of the College of Physicians and Surgeons of New-York, Corresponding Member of the Medical Society of London, &c.* E. Bliss & E. White. 1825.

The current of medical literature, which a century since bore on its fruitful bosom ponderous tomes, heavy folios, and well-filled quartos, which, though rare in their appearance, compensated for their infrequency by the quantity of matter they contained, has, in our degenerate days, been subdivided into an almost innumerable number of small, but rapid streams, carrying with them abundant fertility, in all the thousand forms of periodicals, from the stately quarterly journal of original papers, down to the humble weekly register, in eight pages duodecimo, "a thing of shreds and patches," purloined from the wardrobes of its richer and better clad neighbours. But while it is acknowledged that the advantages derived from this general and rapid diffusion of information are incalculably valuable, it cannot be denied that the system is attended by many and striking evils. It begets an inattention and distaste for the old and sterling writers, whose sound reasoning, and close observation, are often neglected for new speculations and flimsy theories. It generates professional pedantry, the worst variety of that extensive genus. But the heaviest of all its offences is, that it creates a morbid appetite for novelty, encouraging a host of medical *quid nuncs*, whose whole study is to learn, not something valuable, but something new. And this state of things itself ministers to this objectionable end; for the ignorance of the old writers gives to their exploded systems and whimsical opinions all the freshness of novelty, and the quaint notions of Guy de Chauliac, Anthony Nuck, and John of Gaddesden, arrayed in modern costume, have often excited admiration by their depth and originality.

On the other hand, the man of experience, perhaps we should say *business*, whose life is devoted to his professional pursuits, unable or unwilling to appropriate sufficient time to arrange his thoughts in a regular and systematic form, or, in other words, to make a book, often gives the result of his observations and reflections in the condensed, and at the same time, interesting and familiar form of an article in a medical journal. Indeed, a vast proportion of the curious and valuable cases upon which the most important practical improvements are founded, are treasured up in this form by men who are capable of observing with care, and describing with accuracy, though perhaps unequal to the task of drawing new conclusions, or of correcting or confirming those already received. In addition to this, medical journals enable the practitioner to keep pace with the progress of his profession, no unimportant circumstance to those whose *res angusta domi* does not permit the purchase of the scores of books which the press, with a marvellous fecundity, daily brings forth. But the greatest advantage which flows from them is the freedom of inquiry which they excite, the spirit of scrutiny which they stir up upon all points, whether theoretical or practical, and the independent and unshackled medium which they present for the expression of opinion.

The last number of the New-York Medical and Physical Journal commences the 4th volume, and has, we understand, gone on from its commencement with a steadily increasing patronage and support. Unconnected with any medical sect or school, and wedded to no professional opinions, we see nothing to prevent its maintaining, or even going beyond, the high character which it at present sustains. The last number contains the annual address to the State Medical Society by its late veteran President, Dr. Coventry, whose zeal for the improvement and respectability of his profession seems to increase with his years,—an account of the late epidemic small-pox in Albany, by Dr. L. C. Beck,—a very ingenious and learned article on Menstruation by Dr. Manly,—the Medical Topography of the island of Nassau,—a quarterly report of the diseases occurring in the New-York Hospital, by Dr. Moore,—with various other matter, offering a large body of interesting and useful information.

ART. VIII.—*John Bull in America, or the New Munchausen.** London. 1825. John Miller. 12mo. pp. 327.

We regret exceedingly to find that this curious and invaluable little volume has been published under the above preposterous and unmeaning title. The manuscript, (as it appears from a very vulgar and impertinent preface prefixed by the American publisher,) was found in the Mansion Hotel in the city of Washington, and evidently belonged to an English gentleman who had been induced to encounter the perils of a journey through almost every part of the United States, with the laudable object of ascertaining the naked truth with regard to that land of boasted liberty. It appears further, that this gentleman, shortly after his arrival in Washington, to use the language of the American publisher, "mysteriously disappeared," or, in plain English, was basely assassinated by some dirking republican, who, we presume, will soon be rewarded for the feat, by a place in the yankee House of Delegates. The Editor, who confesses the fact of the murder, has meanly attempted to fasten the odium of this atrocious crime upon a certain Frenchman, by whose impertinent presence, it appears, that our unfortunate countryman was perpetually annoyed.

This false charge is made with all the diabolical cunning of a cold-blooded yankee; for we candidly acknowledge, that if the murder had been committed in any other country than America, we should have had no hesitation to ascribe it to a Frenchman. For ourselves, our minds are made up. We are convinced that this foul deed was perpetrated by no less a man than General Jackson, the same monster who inhumanly murdered Dr. Arbuthnot and Miss Ann Bristow, a beautiful English girl,

*This article was sent to us from London, with a very urgent request that it might be inserted in the first number of the New-York Review. It was written, we are given to understand, by the author of the notice of Farmer Faux's Memorable Days, in the 58th number of the Quarterly Review. The present article was offered, it appears, to Mr. Coleridge, the new editor of the Quarterly, but declined by that gentleman, on the ground that he was unwilling to continue the violent opposition to every thing American, so long maintained by his predecessor, Mr. Gifford. As the review of Mr. Faux's Book was, from some strange scruple, omitted in the American edition of the Quarterly Review, and as the present article on Mr. Toughtale's Travels bears a very close resemblance, in argument and style, to that curious production, we feel confident that its insertion will be gratefully received by all who have not yet been favored with a sight of the English copy of the far-famed "fifty-eighth number of the Quarterly."

to whom he was engaged, and shortly to be married. We trust that an inquiry into the circumstances of this infamous assassination will be instantly set on foot by his Majesty's ministers, and reparation for the outrage be demanded from the American President, in a manner conformable to the rights of a British subject, and the dignity of a British king.

In perusing the journal of this unfortunate victim of American barbarity, we were forcibly struck with the very unusual ability and talent it every where discloses. Even the American editor is compelled to acknowledge the extraordinary merits of this production. Indeed, we do not hesitate to say, that for candor, sound sense, impartiality, integrity, piety, and orthodoxy, this work is not to be surpassed even by the admirable journals of Fearon and Faux. Every page bears the stamp of a vigorous and highly cultivated intellect, and so exalted is our admiration of the writer's powers, and so profound our sympathy for his unheard-of sufferings, that we have spared no exertions that could possibly lead to the discovery of his real name. These exertions, we have now the mournful satisfaction to state, have terminated in a satisfactory identification of the amiable author. The American editor has, with characteristic ignorance, ascribed the work to Mr. Secretary Croker, who is now, as every body knows, alive in London, and who certainly has never thought of venturing his life among the gouging, dirking, throat-cutting democrats of Boston or New-York. The fact is, as we have ascertained from competent authority, that this martyr to republican ferocity, was a gentleman by the name of Mr. Timothy Toughtale, a highly respectable journeyman button-gilder, of Birmingham, and a man universally esteemed for his unaffected philanthropy and unimpeachable veracity. But our business is now with the book.

Mr. Toughtale was evidently a very able writer, as well as an accomplished traveller; and we cannot but sincerely hope that the modest and unassuming, but pure and perspicuous style in which this book is written, will go far to give it a rapid and extensive circulation, and thus check the further emigration to America of our now happy paupers, whose adventures in that boasted paradise of freedom, are sure to terminate in scenes of heart-rending misery and soul-harrowing distress. That Mr. Toughtale was an honest man, and told the truth to the best of his knowledge and belief, we cannot for a moment permit ourselves to doubt;—indeed, there is scarcely a word or a fact in his book for which he does not produce his authority;—nor can we deny the proud satisfaction we feel at his frequent reference to the pages of this journal.

Fully aware of the vast superiority of British ships and British sailors, Mr. Toughtale declined the unsolicited advice of certain merchants in Liverpool, (who strangely, and we think very impertinently, urged him to embark in an American packet,) and took passage on board the British brig Wellington, for Boston; his business being principally in New-Orleans. By one of those chances against which no wisdom can provide, his passage, notwithstanding this precaution, was a long and a tedious one, and he did not make Cape Hatteras (the eastern point of Boston Bay) until the seventieth day after leaving the English shore. In going up the bay, Mr. Toughtale saw the famous sea-serpent, of which we have seen such hyperbolical accounts in the Kentucky newspapers. As we expected, it is not as large as our common watersnakes in the Serpentine. Our traveller *puts up* at Renshaw's Hotel, and, at supper, was exceedingly disgusted with the officious civilities of his fellow boarders.

The next morning Mr. Toughtale rode out for the purpose of examining the character and habits of the people. The first thing that struck him was the vast disproportion of negroes in the streets and every where else around him. Nearly one half of the inhabitants of Boston are blacks. The rich whites retain great numbers of them, not for their services, but solely for the purpose of indulging themselves in the luxury of flogging them. This, from all accounts, appears to be the favorite amusement of the citizens. As instruments of torture, *gentlemen* prefer clubs, *ladies* (proh pudor!)—cowhides, and young people pins. Crowds assemble daily at the Mall, eager to participate in this republican diversion. Mr. Toughtale saw "a thousand instances of this kind of a morning."

Next to the perpetual recurrence of these disgusting exhibitions of diabolical ferocity, the most common objects seen in the streets of Boston are drunken men, women, and children. Mr. Toughtale was assured by the Mayor, Mr. Phillips, that on an average, every third person was drunk every day, by nine o'clock in the morning. Children are never permitted to go to school; learning, we presume, being considered aristocratical in this land of equal rights. Accordingly, nothing can exceed the besotted stupidity of the common people of New England. The Rev. Cotton Mather, who passes for one of the most enlightened preachers in Boston, (and of whom, to tell the truth, we expected better things,) has just published a book, entitled the Magnalia, in which he gives a variety of witch-stories, such as would be

laughed at, even among the Indians, but which, says Mr. Toughtale, are all believed here, "as if they were Holy Writ" —and we may add, perhaps a little more. With these facts before us, it is a matter of infinite surprise to us, how any one can hesitate to acknowledge the striking intellectual inferiority of the Americans.—Religion is, if possible, in a worse state than literature, manners, or morals. Mr. Toughtale is, however, mistaken in saying that there is not a single church in Boston. Would to God it were so! Better no religion at all, than the blood-curdling blasphemies of Socinianism. The simple truth is, that the Bostonians are all Atheists, and to this we are to ascribe their portentous ignorance and beastly immorality, as well as the atrocious inhumanity with which they treat their poor unfortunate blacks. Let these men go on! Let them exult while they may, in their infernal triumph over virtue and religion; but let them recollect in the midst of their sacrilegious revels, that the day of retribution is at hand. These unfortunate victims of worse than cannibal cruelty must ere long outnumber their sanguinary tyrants; and then, we trust in God, some friend of suffering humanity will be found, who will rouse them from their degradation to a bloody and insatiable revenge. From Boston Mr. Toughtale proceeded to Charleston, a city separated from Boston by the river Potomac. At the navy-yard of this place, Mr. Toughtale saw a ship building, which Captain Hull, the commandant, assured him would carry 300 long forty-two pounders. And this is to be called a seventy-four, forsooth! To obtain this single fact was worth all the hazards of the journey. It abundantly explains the execrable frauds by which the English navy, during the last American war, was foully cheated of her well-earned fame.—The following description of Charleston we recommend to the perusal of the admirers of American liberty, and if they can read it through without feeling their cheeks tingle with shame, and their blood boil with indignation, we can only say, that they promise to prove worthy citizens of this Paradise of Fools.

"Charleston is about the size of Boston, but has neither pavements nor sidewalks, and alternates between mud and dust, and dust and mud. In summer it is all dust, in winter all mud. Indeed, I began to perceive the moment I arrived here, that I had got among a different sort of people from those of Boston. There was no one to be seen in the streets but negroes stark naked as they were born, with their backs striped like a leopard, in consequence of the frequent application of the lash. In fact, the principal article for sale here at the retail shops, is the cow-hide, as it is called, that is, a hard ox-skin, twisted in the shape of a whip.

Almost every man you see has one of these in his hand, and a spur at his heel, to make people believe he carries his whip for his horse. But I was assured by the head waiter at the city hotel, kept by Mr. Chester Jennings, in Charleston, that it was for the purpose of beating the slaves. Nothing indeed will tempt the whites to exert themselves in this enervating climate, but the luxury of 'licking a fellow,' as they call it, and almost the first thing I noticed in coming into the city, was a tall, lank, cadaverous figure, strutting up and down, cutting and hacking with his cow-hide at every negro man, woman, and child, that came in his way. I inquired of the driver what these blacks had been guilty of.—"Guilty," replied he, "guilty—eh!—O, lord bless you, sir, it's only Judge D——— amusing himself with the niggers!"—pp. 14, 15.

The following detail is so strongly corroborated by a similar statement in Faux's Memorable Days,* that it would be an insult to common sense to doubt it for a moment:

"I had scarcely been at my hotel an hour, when this same Judge D——— called upon me as a stranger, and invited me to dinner the next day. My blood rose up against the brute; but as I wished to see whether some of the stories told about these people, and which they deny, were true, I accepted his invitation. The party consisted of Judge D———'s wife, two daughters, and about a dozen of the principal men in the place, among whom was the governor of South Carolina, Mr. Heister. Behind each of the seats, as well the Judge's as those of his lady and daughters, stood a black boy or girl, as it happened, perfectly naked, and each of the guests were provided with a cow hide, with which to chastise any neglect of duty on the part of the slaves. There was cut and come again. The Judge and his guests cut their meat and cut the negroes *ad interim*, and I particularly noticed the dexterity of the young ladies in touching the tender places with the cow-hide, as well as their infinite delight in seeing them wince under the application. One of these poor wretches, having the misfortune to break a plate during dinner, was taken out, put under the window by the overseer, and beat so cruelly that her moans were heard over half the city. When she came in again, the tears were rolling down her cheeks, and the blood trickling down her naked back. The indifference with which every one of the company but myself beheld all this, convinced me that it was the custom of the country."—pp. 15, 16.

It has frequently been stated, on very respectable authority, that in Charleston the flesh of young negroes is eaten without scruple by the whites. The fact is almost too horrible to be credited, and we have accordingly always cautiously abstained

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*We subjoin the extract from Faux:

"Colonel Taylor has a black uncle, a SLAVE, for his body guard, and most owners are related to their black cattle. A gentleman of Washington, too kind hearted to whip his house negroes himself, leaves it to his wife, a fashionable, beautiful female, holding and going to levees, yet able to cow-hide her negroes, whose screams under the lash, scare Mrs. Little and family. A cow-hide is no uncommon appendage of the ladies here."—p. 387.

from availing ourselves of an assertion hitherto not fully substantiated. But we are now prepared to say, on the authority of Mr. Toughtale, that there is no exaggeration in the statements already given by numerous travellers, of the cannibal propensities of the inhabitants of Charleston. It is as true as it is horrible—*the Charlestonians eat young negroes, cooked up in what they blasphemously call—terrapin soup!* The following are the words of Mr. Toughtale:

"There was a very suspicious dish on the table, which they called terrapin soup, in which I observed what had exactly the appearance of the fingers and toes of little negroes. *I afterwards learned that this was actually the case,* and that terrapin is the cant name for black children, as papoose is for those of the Indians."

One such fact from a man like Mr. Toughtale, is worth volumes of denial from such scoundrels as Tell Harris, or such base wretches as Miss Frances Wright. Let us hear no more then, of that sacrilegious scepticism that would doubt the appalling truth here so explicitly and circumstantially detailed. Becoming heartily disgusted with Charleston, Mr. Toughtale took a seat in the stage for Portsmouth, Long-Island.* Our traveller had heard much of the populousness of the country, in the neighbourhood of Boston; but he declares positively, that he saw neither house nor human being along the road. On the contrary, he heard little else than the howling and yelling of wild beasts, which, as a fellow traveller assured him, would not unfrequently surround the stage-coach, devour the horses, and tear the coachman and the passengers to pieces. This is very properly ascribed, by Mr. Toughtale, to the turbulent spirit of democracy.

The following anecdote admirably illustrates the depravity of young people, so frequently observed by travellers through New-England.

"Breakfasting at a little town, which, like all other towns in this country, is called the city of Hartford, I saw a young lady devour thirty-six cucumbers, moistened with a quart of vinegar. After which, she sat down, played Lodoiska on the piano, and then went into the field to pull onions. Such horrible incongruities are generated in the rankness of

* Mr. Toughtale is in an error in supposing that Portsmouth is the capital of New-Hampshire. He himself afterwards (page 23) calls it the capital of Georgia. And now we are on the point of faults, we may as well mention that Tom and Jerry was not written by Shakespeare, as Mr. Toughtale strangely supposes, (page 93.) We take notice of these little inaccuracies, to be beforehand with the hypercritics, who will doubtless disingenuously attempt to draw from these trifling inadvertencies, an inference unfavorable to the credibility of the whole book.

democracy! There was a child of about eight years old in the room, who called for an antifogmatic, which he drank off at one swallow, after which he lighted a cigar, and amused himself with singeing the woolly pate of a little black boy, or terrapin, as they call them when made into soup."

At Portsmouth our traveller discovers that he was on the wrong road to New-Orleans, and is obliged to return again to Boston. Here an event is recorded, which, for the honor of humanity, we earnestly hope has been either misrepresented or misunderstood, for we can scarcely persuade ourselves that an act of such unutterable turpitude could ever have been perpetrated, without subjecting the place in which it was committed to a fate more tremendous than that of Sodom or Gomorrah. We allude to the blowing up of Mr. Higginbottom, Mr. Winterbottom, and Mr. Leatherbottom, with all their families, by a villain of the name of Ramsbottom, because, forsooth, Mrs. Higginbottom had said that Mr. Winterbottom sold crimped tuckers cheaper than Mr. Leatherbottom. We refer our readers to the book for a particular account of this atrocious deed, which stamps upon the American character a stain of indelible infamy.

Mr. Toughtale here makes an effort to get rid of a little Frenchman, "with a mahogany face, gold ear-rings, and dimity breeches," who had impertinently obtruded himself into his society, and who disgusted him exceedingly by perpetual exhibitions of that loathsome obsequiousness for which the French have always been remarkable. In spite of every precaution, however, our traveller finds himself, on all occasions, in taverns, and steam-boats, and stage-coaches, side by side with this eternal Frenchman.

This fellow, it appears, had combined with a yankee passensenger to rob Mr. Toughtale, who was literally obliged to travel through the United States with his hands in his pockets, his pocket-book in one hand, and his watch in the other, and to sit up every night with a cocked pistol in each hand, ready to defend himself! This one fact speaks volumes, and shows conclusively, that the practice of picking pockets is universal in this Elysium of the west. All classes of the community, in this way contrive to accumulate immense sums, and we have heard from competent authority, that Mr. Clintock, the first judge of the vice-admiralty court for the province of New-York, is known to have amassed a large fortune in this very dishonorable manner. It is not, indeed, unreasonable to suppose that the greater part of the wealth which the American cities are now said to possess.

and of which we have every day such sickening accounts, are the dishonest fruits of the mutual depredations committed upon each other's property by these shop-lifting, pig-stealing democrats.

At a tavern on a lonely moor, in the neighbourhood of Boston, an attempt was made by a pretended stage-coachman to rob and murder Mr. Toughtale, which was defeated by the resolute intrepidity of that gentleman, who discharged his pistol at the scoundrel just as he entered the bed room. Will it be believed, that this villain (who, we regret to state, escaped unhurt) insisted on Mr. Toughtale's paying a pint of whiskey, as a *compromise*, forsooth, for defending himself against assassination? We doubt whether the records of the French police could furnish an instance of such horrible depravity.

One fact, it is well said, is worth a thousand fine-spun theories. Let the enemies of a church establishment read the following *fact*, and we shall hear no more of the vile slang of universal toleration.

"On the confines of Connecticut, the very centre of steady habits, although it was Sunday, (a sufficient reason for deterring any christian highwayman,) we were stopped by a footpad, who demanded money with as little compunction as a he-wolf. Upon my showing my pistols, however, he sheered off, and the driver whipping up his horses at the moment, we luckily escaped this time. The incident of a single foot-pad attempting thus to rob a whole stage load of people, furnishes another proof of the fact, that stage-drivers and stage-owners, not to say a majority of stage-passengers, are accomplices of these bands of robbers. Had it not been for my pistols, we should all have been robbed to a certainty, and most probably the rest of the passengers would have shared my spoils. What exhibits the turbulent and impious spirit of democracy in all its turpitude, is the fact that the driver, after getting fairly out of sight, turned round to the passengers with a grin, and exclaimed, 'I guess I've distanced the deacon.' So that this foot-pad was one of the pillars of the church."—p. 39.

On his way to New-York, Mr. Toughtale was compelled to witness one of those disgusting scenes already described by Mr. Faux, and alluded to by us in our review of that gentleman's "Memorable Days;" we mean a negro-hunt, the only amusement, it seems, for which these black-hearted republicans have any fondness or capacity. We have been credibly informed, although the fact is not adverted to by Mr. Toughtale, that it is by no means an uncommon occurrence, for the most fashionable women in New-York to take an active part in this atrocious *sport*, as it is unblushingly denominated. A very respectable journeyman pin-head-maker has just assured

us, that he was well acquainted, while in America, with a negro-hunter, who one day showed him the wooly scalps of upwards of one hundred negroes, which he had hunted down in the cotton-swamps of Massachusetts!

We have often heard of the incredible quantity of toads, lizards, and bull-frogs, which infest, like the locusts of Egypt, every part of the United States. These nauseous reptiles literally cover the whole country, crawling over tables, into beds, and swarming in the very "kneading troughs." Mr. Toughtale saw a canoe upset at New-Rochelle, by the weight of four of these disgusting creatures who were clambering up its sides.

New-York exhibits at present a great appearance of bustle, which the Philadelphians (and we agree with them) consider merely got up for show. "Sometimes," says Mr. Toughtale, "the New-Yorkers pull down a street and build it up again, merely to impose upon strangers an idea of the prosperity of the city, and thereby to attract emigrants from England." In this unprincipled design, we are sorry to say, they have been but too successful. Thousands of deluded wretches have been, by this vile trick, inveigled to America, and are now starving in that land of milk and honey, in a state of irremediable beggary.

Mr. Toughtale has given a fearful, and we doubt not a faithful account, of the horrid state of morals in this "sewer of all earth's scum," as Mr. Faux has very properly called the city of New-York. Every man, without exception, is a drunkard and a thief; and the quantity of ill-gotten wealth that the citizens of New-York have accumulated by swindling and plundering each other, is almost incredible. A Broadway shopkeeper told Mr. Toughtale that no lady entered his shop without pocketing a piece of lace or a pair of gloves. Mr. Toughtale found, on leaving the shop, that his own pocket had been picked by this very shop-keeper!

"The consequence of all this," said Mr. Toughtale's host, a very worthy and religious gentleman of color, "is a general and irremediable relaxation of manners, and a total want of prudence and principle in all classes. Drunkenness, impiety, insolence, extravagance, ignorance, brutality, gluttony, and every vice that can disgrace human nature, are the ordinary characteristics of these spawn of filthy democracy."—p. 61.

The following is a specimen of a conversation which Mr. Toughtale accidentally overheard, while walking one evening on the Battery at New-York. It is only after long and solemn deliberation that we have prevailed upon ourselves to pollute our pages with this precious piece of execrable blasphemy;

but our repugnance has been conquered in the hope that such a sample of republican impiety will put an end at once to all doubts about the frightful consequences of a free toleration of opinion.

"No. 1.—'Well, neighbour, how d'ye get on?'
'O, by degrees, *as lawyers go to heaven!*'
"No. 2.—'When do you go out of town?'
'Why, I think of going to-morrow, *God willing.*'
"No. 3.—'*Bless my soul*, neighbour, where have you sprung from?'
'*Why, God love you*, I sprung from the clouds, *like Methuselah!*'
"No. 4.—'Well, friend, how does the good woman to-day?'
'Why, thank you, *she complains of being a little better!*'"

Nor is this all. But the sequel is too horrid, and we dare not trust ourselves with further extracts.

There is no part of Mr. Toughtale's excellent book which we so heartily commend, as his eloquent and evangelical defence of the necessity of church establishments. We have before (vide vol. xxix. p. 369.) adverted in strong terms to the fatal, fatal mistake which the Americans have committed, in not inserting into their articles of confederation, a clause requiring as a qualification for office, a confession of belief in the tenets of the Church of England, and establishing, at the same time, a generous support for the defenders of the faith, by a rigorously executed system of tithes; for, as we said on that occasion, "to expect men to cultivate morality and neglect religion, is to know very little of human nature." The following quotations are written in such a noble spirit of genuine eloquence and unaffected piety, and so exactly represent the opinions we have always steadily inculcated on this interesting subject, that we offer no apology to our readers for inserting them at length:

"In proportion as the hierarchy is enriched by the spoils of the people, the latter, becoming comparatively poor, are precluded by necessity from indulging in vicious extravagance and corrupt enjoyments. They will practise per force, abstinence, economy, self-denial, and the other domestic virtues so essential to the welfare of the lower orders. Hence it is sufficiently obvious, that in proportion as you curtail the superfluities of the commonalty by taxes, tithes, high rents, and poor rates, you guaranty to them the practice of almost all the cardinal virtues. Again: In proportion as the people become poor, they will necessarily pay less attention to the education of their children; and I fear no denial, except from radicals, democrats, and atheists, when I assert, that considering the mischievous books now in circulation on the subject of liberty and such impieties, the greatest blessing that could possibly happen to the lower orders, would be the loss of the dangerous faculty of reading. In no age of the world were this class of people so devoted to the honor of the priests, and the glory of their kings, and consequently to the interests of religion and human rights, as when a large portion of them could not read, and were without

any property they could call their own. I appeal to the whole history of mankind for the proof of the maxim, that ignorance and poverty are the two pillars of a privileged church, and the divine right of kings." pp. 66, 67.

The dreadful consequences of the atheistical doctrine of freedom of opinion, are such as we might naturally anticipate. The Sabbath in New-York is horribly profaned; and Mr. Toughtale's landlord (the worthy and religious black gentleman) assured him that the African church was the only one in which there was a chance of hearing a sermon; and that even there, the whole congregation was sometimes taken up and carried to the watch-house, under pretence that they disturbed the neighbourhood with their groanings, howlings, and other demonstrations of genuine piety. "The true reason was, however that these bundling, gouging democrats, have such a bitter hostility to all sorts of religion, that they cannot bear even that the poor negroes should sing psalms." —p. 69.

The state of literature in New-York may be inferred from the reply of one of the *bas bleus* of that place, to Mr. Toughtale, who inquired of her how she liked Lord Bacon. "Bacon —bacon," replied this American Corinna—"O! I *guess* we call it gammon. But we don't put Lord to it, because its anti-republican." Mr. Toughtale is however mistaken in supposing that Lord Bacon is the present Lord Chancellor of England. Lord V. Bacon, "the great inventor of human reason," as Mr. Toughtale very justly terms him, died many years ago, during the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

Two other *facts* (and these, we again repeat, are worth a thousand fine-spun theories) are conclusive on the subject of the literary qualifications of the Americans. Mr. Crawfoot, the present Chancellor of the Exchequer, *cannot write his own name*, and the Washington House of Delegates is obliged to employ a clerk to read the papers, messages, &c. for the benefit of the country members!

In New-York, Mr. Toughtale found upwards of thirty thousand English emigrants, literally starving in the streets for want of employment. He inquired minutely into the history of one of these poor wretches, who it appears had encountered, after his arrival in America, scenes of misery and horror that exceed all parallel, and baffle all description. We refer the reader to the book itself, for we have not the heart to copy out the extract.

At New-York, Mr. Toughtale had some experience of trans-Atlantic jurisprudence. He had detected De Gomperville, the suspicious looking Frenchman, in the very act of sharpening

his razors at him, and narrowly escaped assassination by discharging his pistol into the Frenchman's room. On application to a magistrate, who, like the Squire Russel mentioned by Mr. Faux, was found sitting on a bench, mending old boots,* a warrant was with some difficulty obtained against the assassin. After a farcical mock-examination of two or three minutes, Mr. Toughtale's complaint was dismissed by this American Rhadamanthus, and the complainant *permitted* to retire, on the payment of a heavy compromise!

We have already, (vol. xxix. p. 356.) on the authority of Mr. Faux and Mr. Chichester, mentioned that in Kentucky and Tennessee, "ten dollars would procure the life and blood of any man." Thus, if A. is desirous to get B. out of the way, he calls at any of the *Rowdy-offices* in Louisville or Lexington, enters into a *Rowdy-book* B 's name and occupation, pays the *Rowdy* his ten dollars, and in a few days has the satisfaction to see in the public prints a detailed account of B.'s murder or mysterious disappearance. Some of our readers will be ready to ask with the Englishman at Fondi,† why the police don't interfere? The answer is a simple one; the officers of justice *dare* not do their duty, for fear of being *done for* by these cut-throats, who think as little of dirking a judge as a judge does of stealing a pig. (v. vol. xxix. of this journal, p. 357.) With a knowledge of these facts before them, our readers will perhaps be prepared for the following account of one of the exploits of these Tennessee assassins.

"After travelling all day over rough roads, and through a dreary, barren wilderness, which is, however, considered one of the best peopled and best cultivated parts of the country, and where every body was astonished to hear me speak English, we arrived late in the evening at Louisville, the capital of the state of Tennessee. In walking up from the stage-coach to the inn, I stumbled over something, and what was my horror at discovering a dead body weltering in blood! A little way further on, I stumbled over another, and in this way encountered six or seven, in less than the space of thirty yards. Inquiring the cause of their deaths, and the

* If the fact of the barbarous vulgarity of American jurisprudence required any confirmation, we might find it in the following extract taken *literatim et verbatim* from a New-York paper now before us. "During the last session of the court of this place, a gentleman who was invited to attend, found the judge sitting on a large block, in one corner of a log cabin, paring his toe nails. Soon after, the judge inquired of the sheriff why the jury were not forth-coming; to which he replied, that he had eleven men *tied* up stairs, and his deputies were engaged in running down the twelfth!"

† Tales of a Traveller.

reason of their exposure in this manner, the landlord seemed at a loss to understand me for a few minutes, which I ascribed to my speaking pure English. After a little reflection, however, he seemed to recollect himself.

"O—ay—yes—I recollect—we had a *blow out* here last Sunday, and half a dozen troublesome fellows, they call justices, were done for by the brave *rowdies*. They won't interrupt sport again, I guess." pp. 136, 137.

It will be recollected that we have the unquestionable testimony of Mr. Chichester, to prove that it is no uncommon thing for these godless reprobates, the *Rowdies*, to roast their own friends to death before large log-fires, whenever they refuse to drink.* We are aware that some of our readers have entertained doubts of the accuracy of this statement; but we presume that all such dangerous and censurable scepticism will vanish at once, on the perusal of the following well authenticated fact.

"—— Just at this moment there was a great uproar in an adjoining room, accompanied by cries of murder, upon which mine host hurried away 'to see the sport,' as he was pleased to term it ☞ *This sport, as I afterwards learned, consisted in a promising young republican, of about seventeen, attempting to gouge his father, because he had refused to call for another mint julep!!!*"

The mean and fulsome flattery which the Americans have lavished on that horrid miscreant La Fayette, has already filled the breast of every Briton with unutterable disgust. The worthlessness of all this noisy foolery will be readily understood, when the damning fact is known, that Mr. Jefferson, a man whom the democrats once pretended to love and honor like a god, is, *at this moment, an actor on the Philadelphia boards for bread!* One single fact, like this, is a triumphant refutation of all the vulgar trash we are doomed to hear about American generosity.

Mr. Toughtale has preserved in this journal of his, an invaluable document,—the confession of a backwoodsman, taken from his own lips. The desperate effrontery with which this wretch openly avows his matchless iniquities, has rarely been surpassed. We give the whole without further comment. *Ex hoc disce omnes.*

'I was born in New-Hampshire; raised in the western part of the State of New-York; married in Ohio; and am now settled, for the present, in the State of Missouri.' Jupiter! thought I, the man has travelled over half the globe in three lines. 'I have been a man of various enterprise, and miscellaneous occupation. At seventeen years, I commenced land-surveyor in the Genesee country, which was then

* See the twenty-ninth volume of this journal, page 357.

something of a wilderness, and hardly afforded me employment, so that I had sufficient leisure to visit my native town and get married. I forgot that neither my wife nor myself were worth ten dollars. However, we don't forget such things long, that's one comfort. We returned to Genessee, with one dollar in my pocket, and none in that of my wife. For some time I did not make much money; but then we had plenty of children, which, in a new country, are better than money. However, I managed to save a little every year, with the intention of buying a few hundred acres of land. But the land rose in price faster than I made money. So that by the time I had got together five hundred dollars, land was a dollar and a half an acre. This won't do for me, thought I;—but just then the people began to talk of Ohio, where land was selling at that time for two and six-pence an acre. 'Betsey,' said I, 'shall we go to Ohio?' 'To the end of the world, John,' replied she; and away we scampered the next day. Here I bought a good stout farm, cut down some trees for a place for my house, girdled others for a place for my wheat, and built a log house, twenty feet long at least. People soon flocked round, so that in a little time there was some occasion for law: so they made me a justice of the peace. Not long after, it was thought but proper to introduce a little religion: so I took to reading a sermon every Sunday, at the request of my neighbors. By-and-by, it was thought prudent to embody a company of militia for protection against the Indians: so they made me a captain of militia. In a year or two, there was a town laid out and a court-house built. This introduced two new wants—that of a judge and a town treasurer—so they made me judge, and town treasurer. The establishment of a town, brought with it the want of a newspaper: so a newspaper was set up, and I volunteered as editor.

"These honors were very gratifying to be sure, but all this time my family were increasing in size and number. I had six girls and five boys, some of them six feet high. I began to be uneasy about providing for all these. I had only sixteen hundred acres of land, and that was not enough for them all. The thought struck me I could sell it for enough to buy six or eight thousand in Missouri territory. 'Betsey,' said I, 'will you go to Missouri?' 'To the end of the world, John,' said the brave girl. So the next day but one we hied away to Missouri, where I bought a few thousand acres. We were almost alone at first; but in a year or two people came faster and faster, so that from a territory we became a state, and wanted members of congress. So they made me a member of congress. But the country is getting too thickly settled for me—and I think next year of moving up the river five or six hundred miles, to get out of the crowd. I am now on my way to the Federal City, where I mean to make speeches like a brave fellow. But see, we are just arrived, and I must look to my baggage." He then shook me by the hand, and gave me a hearty invitation to come and see him next summer, when I should probably find him somewhere about the mouth of the Yellow Stone."—pp. 186—188.

Enough of this. Our heart sickens at the horrid detail, and we can go no further.

The rest of this instructive volume contains further circumstantial accounts of the unprincipled immorality, indecency,

vulgarity, and irreligion of these immaculate republicans.—But our readers are doubtless already satiated with the little we have given them, and, God knows, we are sincerely glad to bring this article to a close. Enough has been said, we think, to convince the most incredulous, that there is not on the face of the earth, or rather, to use the strong and apposite language of Mr. Faux, there is not, "within the precincts of the heathen pandemonium," a people so utterly and irremediably destitute of morals or religion or political security—so absolutely swallowed up in the gulf of irreparable misery—as the lost inhabitants of this terrestrial hell. We feel no pity for their sufferings. We look upon the hopeless horrors of their situation with the same holy complacency, with which (to use the language of one of their divines) the spirits of the blessed gaze upon the tortures of the damned—knowing that *this* they have deserved. They have voluntarily rejected the only means of political salvation, and they have none but themselves to blame for all the tremendous consequences of their guilt. They might have peaceably enjoyed the inestimable blessings of a heaven-anointed monarch, a wealthy order of nobility, a valiant standing army, a splendid church establishment, and a magnificent national debt; all supported and protected by those lasting monuments of British wisdom, elderships, tithes, and excises, poors' rates and corn-laws, bounties and prohibitory duties. These glorious institutions, the fruits of the accumulated wisdom of ages, they have sacrilegiously rejected; and impiously relying on the mean and treacherous faculty of reason, these daring blasphemers have had the matchless audacity to substitute in their stead the new-fangled theories of elective law-givers and annual assemblies—the visionary notions of unrestricted trade and proportionate taxation—and, what is worse than all, the atheistical absurdities of universal toleration, and self-supported churches.

It is utterly impossible that such a state of things can long continue without bringing down upon the heads of the offenders, the special vengeance of an exasperated Providence. *Festinetur dies illa*, shall be our constant prayer; for a proud and happy day to Europe will be the day when these insolent braggarts shall feel at last the intolerable burden of their pernicious liberties, and when, amid the shouts and the jubilees of the servants of the throne and the altar, the whole fraternity of patriots shall be crushed into annihilation, beneath the fragments of their prostrate idol, the execrable Dagon of Democracy.

THE

ATHENEUM MAGAZINE.

JUNE, 1825.

MARCO BOZZARIS,

[The Epaminondas of modern Greece.—He fell in a night attack upon the Turkish Camp at Laspi, the site of the ancient Platæa, August 20, 1823, and expired in the moment of victory. His last words were—"To die for liberty is a pleasure and not a pain."]

At midnight, in his guarded tent,
The Turk was dreaming of the hour
When Greece, her knee in suppliance bent,
Should tremble at his power;
In dreams, through camp and court, he bore
The trophies of a conqueror;
In dreams his song of triumph heard;
Then wore his monarch's signet ring,—
Then pressed that monarch's throne,—a king;
As wild his thoughts, and gay of wing,
As Eden's garden bird.

At midnight, in the forest shades,
Bozzaris ranged his Suliote band,
True as the steel of their tried blades,
Heroes in heart and hand.
There had the Persian's thousands stood,
There had the glad earth drunk their blood
On old Platæa's day;
And now there breathed that haunted air
The sons of sires who conquered there,
With arm to strike, and soul to dare,
As quick, as far as they.

An hour passed on—the Turk awoke;
That bright dream was his last;
He woke—to hear his sentries shriek,
"To arms! they come! the Greek! the Greek!"
He woke—to die midst flame, and smoke,
And shout, and groan, and sabre stroke,
And death shots falling thick and fast

As lightnings from the mountain cloud;
And heard, with voice as trumpet loud,
Bozzaris cheer his band;
"Strike—till the last armed foe expires,
Strike—for your altars and your fires,
Strike—for the green graves of your sires,
God—and your native land!"

They fought—like brave men, long and well,
They piled that ground with Moslem slain.
They conquered—but Bozzaris fell,
Bleeding at every vein.
His few surviving comrades saw
His smile when rang their proud hurrah,
And the red field was won;
Then saw in death his eyelids close
Calmly, as to a night's repose,
Like flowers at set of sun.

Come to the bridal chamber, Death!
Come to the mother's, when she feels
For the first time her first born's breath;—
Come when the blessed seals
Which close the pestilence are broke
And crowded cities wail its stroke;
Come in consumption's ghastly form,
The earthquake shock, the ocean storm;—
Come when the heart beats high and warm,
With banquet-song, and dance, and wine—
And thou art terrible: the tear,
The groan, the knell, the pall, the bier,
And all we know, or dream, or fear
Of agony, are thine.

But to the hero, when his sword
Has won the battle for the free,
Thy voice sounds like a prophet's word,
And in its hollow tones are heard
The thanks of millions yet to be.
Come, when his task of Fame is wrought—
Come, with her laurel-leaf, blood-bought—
Come in her crowning hour; and then
Thy sunken eyes' unearthly light
To him is welcome as the sight
Of sky and stars to prisoned men;
Thy grasp is welcome as the hand
Of brother in a foreign land;
Thy summons welcome as the cry
Which told the Indian isles were nigh
To the world-seeking Genoese,
When the land wind, from woods of palm,
And orange groves, and fields of balm,
Blew o'er the Haytian seas.

Bozzaris! with the storied brave
Greece nurtured in her glory's time,
Rest thee—there is no prouder grave,
Even in her own proud clime.
She wore no funeral weeds for thee,
Nor bade the dark hearse wave its plume,
Like torn branch from death's leafless tree,
In sorrow's pomp, and pageantry,
The heartless luxury of the tomb;
But she remembers thee as one
Long loved, and for a season gone.
For thee her poet's lyre is wreathed,
Her marble wrought, her music breathed;
For thee she rings the birth-day bells;
Of thee her first babe's lisping tells;
For thine her evening prayer is said
At palace couch, and cottage bed.
Her soldier, closing with the foe,
Gives for thy sake a deadlier blow;
His plighted maiden, when she fears
For him, the joy of her young years,
Thinks of thy fate, and checks her tears;
And she, the mother of thy boys,
Though in her eye and faded cheek
Is read the grief she will not speak,
The memory of her buried joys,
And even she who gave thee birth,
Will, by their pilgrim-circled hearth,
Talk of thy doom without a sigh;
For thou art Freedom's now, and Fame's—
One of the few, the immortal names,
That were not born to die.

H.

[It would be an act of gross injustice to the author of the above magnificent Lyric, were we to withhold the expression of our admiration of its extraordinary beauty. We are sure, too, that in this instance, at least, we have done what is rare indeed in the annals of criticism,—we have given an opinion from which not one of our readers will feel any inclination to dissent.]

MRS. BARBAULD.

The admirers of Mrs. Barbauld will be glad to learn, that a collection is about to be made of her unpublished writings in England, and that arrangements will probably be made for reprinting them in this country. There can be no doubt, that their publication will be a highly acceptable present to the public. It is very certain, that when Mrs. Barbauld began to write verses, no other English poetess had written half so well; and

although, perhaps, at the present day, she is surpassed by Mrs. Hemans, the sweetness, delicacy, and rich imagery of her poetical productions make them very delightful reading, and give her no mean rank among contemporary authors. Her prose writings, also, are distinguished for just thoughts, expressed in a style of great animation, and a sort of unaffected brilliancy of manner, which renders them exceedingly engaging. It is too often the case, that the task of selecting and arranging posthumous works, falls into injudicious hands, or, more properly speaking, that no selection whatever is made. The desire of getting up a large book, in order to increase the profit of the publication, or the indiscriminate admiration of friends, frequently give to the world, along with some things perhaps truly valuable, a great deal that cannot be read, and the unauthorized publication of which, in the life-time of the writer, would have been considered by him as an offence hardly to be forgiven. In this present instance, no danger of this sort need be apprehended. The good sense, and cool, steady judgment of Miss Lucy Aikin, who has undertaken the task of selecting the papers to be published, are the best possible pledge that nothing will be included among them which would tend, in the least degree, to impair the literary reputation of her excellent and venerable relation. The following is an extract of a letter from that lady to a gentleman in this city, who had offered to dispose of her History of Charles I., a work she is now preparing for the press, to some American bookseller.

"Mrs. Barbauld left behind her a considerable number of manuscripts, both in verse and prose, and I am now closely occupied in preparing a complete edition of her works. This publication will not, I apprehend, extend beyond two moderate octavos; one verse, the other prose. The verse, to which I shall prefix a short memoir, is already in the press, and will be printed, I hope, by the end of next month. It is still matter of doubt with me, whether the second volume can be brought out during the present London book-season, which does not extend beyond the month of June; for I wish some specimens of her epistolary talent, which was very striking, and some time must elapse before all the contributions of her correspondents can be collected. If we cannot be ready with both volumes at once, the prose must be deferred till November or December. Now, sir, I am so well persuaded that the products of Mrs. Barbauld's genius will be cordially received by your American public, that I will venture to transmit to you a copy of the first volume, some time before publication, and beg of you the favor to per-

form the same kind office which you have so obligingly offered with respect to my intended work. Nearly two thirds of the volume will consist of matter entirely new, and certainly not inferior, in intrinsic merit, to any thing of hers with which the public is acquainted. Old age has no power to quench in her the light of fancy. She wrote several charming little pieces in the course of the last year.

Stoke Newington, March 31, 1825."

THE DYING RAVEN.

Come to these lonely woods to die alone?
Not many days, it seems, since thou wast heard,
From out the mists of spring, with thy shrill note,
Calling unto thy mates—and their clear answers.
The earth was brown, then; and the infant leaves
Had not put forth to warm them in the sun,
Or play in the fresh air of heaven. Thy voice,
Shouting in triumph, told of winter gone,
And prophesying life to the sealed ground,
Did make me glad with thoughts of coming beauties.
And now they're all around us;—offspring bright
Of earth,—a mother, who, with constant care,
Doth feed and clothe them all.—Now o'er her fields,
In blessed bands, or single, they are gone,
Or by her brooks they stand, and sip the stream;
Or peering o'er it,—vanity well feigned—
In quaint approval seem to glow and nod
At their reflected graces.—Morn to meet,
They in fantastic labors pass the night,
Catching its dews, and rounding silvery drops
To deck their bosoms.—There, on tall, bald trees,
From varnished cells some peep, and the old boughs
Make to rejoice and dance in the unseen winds.
Over my head the winds and they make music,
And grateful, in return for what they take,
Bright hues and odors to the air they give.
Thus mutual love brings mutual delight—
Brings beauty, life;—for love is life—hate, death.
Thou Prophet of so fair a revelation!
Thou who abod'st with us the winter long,
Enduring cold or rain, and shaking oft,
From thy dark mantle, falling sleet or snow—
Thou, who with purpose kind, when warmer days
Shone on the earth, midst thaw and steam, cam'st forth
From rocky nook, or wood, thy priestly cell,
To speak of comfort unto lonely man—
Didst say to him,—though seemingly alone

'Midst wastes and snows, and silent, lifeless trees,
Or the more silent ground—that 'twas not death,
But nature's sleep and rest, her kind repair;—
That Thou, albeit unseen, did'st bear with him
The winter's night, and, patient of the day,
And cheered by hope, (instinct divine in Thee,)
Waitedst return of summer.
More Thou said'st,
Thou Priest of Nature, Priest of God, to man!
Thou spok'st of Faith, (than instinct no less sure,)
Of Spirits near him, though he saw them not:
Thou bad'st him ope his intellectual eye,
And see his solitude all populous:
Thou show'dst him Paradise, and deathless flowers;
And did'st him pray to listen to the flow
Of living waters.
Preacher to man's spirit!
Emblem of Hope! Companion! Comforter!
Thou faithful one! is this thine end? 'Twas Thou,
When summer birds were gone, and no form seen
In the void air, who cam'st, living and strong,
On thy broad, balanced pennons, through the winds.
And of thy long enduring, this the close!
Thy kingly strength brought down, of storms
Thou Conqueror!
The year's mild, cheering dawn
Upon thee shone a momentary light.
The gales of spring upbore thee for a day,
And then forsook thee. Thou art fallen now;
And liest amongst thy hopes and promises;
Beautiful flowers, and freshly springing blades,
Gasping thy life out.—Here for Thee the grass
Tenderly makes a bed; and the young buds
In silence open their fair, painted folds—
To ease thy pain, the one—to cheer thee, these.
But thou art restless; and thy once keen eye
Is dull and sightless now. New blooming boughs,
Needlessly kind, have spread a tent for thee.
Thy mate is calling to the white, piled clouds,
And asks for thee. No answer give they back.
As I look up to their bright angel faces,
Intelligent and capable of voice
They seem to me. Their silence to my soul
Comes ominous. The same to thee, doom'd bird,
Silence or sound. For thee there is no sound,
No silence:—near thee stands the shadow, Death,—
And now he slowly draws his sable veil
Over thine eyes. Thy senses soft he lulls
Into unconscious slumbers. The airy call
Thou'lt hear no longer. Neath sun-lighted clouds,
With beating wing, or steady poise aslant,
Thou'lt sail no more. Around thy trembling claws
Droop thy wings' parting feathers. Spasms of death
Are on Thee.

Laid thus low by age? Or is't
All-grudging man has brought thee to this end?
Perhaps the slender hair, so subtly wound
Around the grain God gives thee for thy food
Has proved thy snare, and makes thy inward pain!
I needs must mourn for thee. For I, who have
No fields, nor gather into garners—I
Bear Thee both thanks and love, not fear nor hate.
And, now, farewell! The falling leaves ere long
Will give Thee decent covering. Till then,
Thine own black plumage, which will now no more
Glance to the sun, nor flash upon my eyes
Like armor of steeled knight of Palestine—
Must be thy pall. Nor will it moult so soon
As sorrowing thoughts on those borne from him fade
In living man.
Who scoffs these sympathies,
Makes mock of the divinity within;
Nor feels he gently breathing through his soul
The universal spirit.—Hear it cry,
"How does thy pride abase thee, man, vain man!
How deaden thee to universal love,
And joy of kindred, with all humble things,—
God's creatures all!"
And surely it is so.
He who the lily clothes in simple glory,
He who doth hear the ravens cry for food,
Hath on our hearts, with hand invisible,
In signs mysterious, written what alone
Our *hearts* may read.—Death bring thee rest, poor Bird.

Y.

A SONG OF PITCAIRN'S ISLAND.

Come, take our boy, and we will go
Before our cabin door;
The winds shall bring us, as they blow,
The murmurs of the shore;
And we will kiss his young blue eyes,
And I will sing him, as he lies,
Songs that were made of yore:
I'll sing, in his delighted ear,
The island lays thou lov'st to hear.

And thou, while stammering I repeat,
Thy country's tongue shalt teach;
'Tis not so soft, but far more sweet,
Than my own native speech.
For thou no other tongue did'st know,
When, scarcely twenty moons ago,
Upon Tahete's beach.

Thou cam'st to woo me to be thine,
With many a speaking look and sign.

I knew thy meaning—thou didst praise
My eyes, my locks of jet;
Ah! well for me they won thy gaze,—
But thine were fairer yet!
I'm glad to see my infant wear
Thy soft blue eyes and sunny hair,
And when my sight is met
By his white brow and blooming cheek,
I feel a joy I cannot speak.

Come, talk of Europe's maids, with me,
Whose necks and cheeks, they tell,
Outshine the beauty of the sea,
White foam and crimson shell.
I'll shape like theirs my simple dress,
And bind like them each jetty tress,
A sight to please thee well;
And for my dusky brow will braid
A bonnet, like an English maid.

Come, for the soft, low sunlight calls,
We lose the pleasant hours;
'Tis lovelier than these cottage walls,—
That seat among the flowers.
And I will learn of thee a prayer,
To Him, who gave a home so fair,
A lot so blest as ours—
The God who made, for thee and me,
This sweet lone isle amid the sea.

B.

TO THE EDITORS OF THE NEW-YORK REVIEW.

Gentlemen,

I regret to be obliged to resume the subject of your review of the late "*spurious*" edition, as you term it, of Alexander Hamilton's Report on Manufactures. The task is unpleasant, but justice to myself requires it—and I have too much reliance on your honor to doubt your willingness to let the public hear the accused, as well as the accusers. Any other supposition would be an impeachment of your candor and impartiality.

I did hope that I had placed the matter in such a point of view, as would have induced you to retract your accusations. But I have been mistaken. They are repeated, and urged in stronger form. As editor of the edition in question, I am expressly charged with an attempt at imposition, by

"Leaving the reader *falsely* to suppose, that the order [for printing this edition] issued from the Congress of 1823—4."

This, gentlemen, is a heavy charge, and ought not to have been lightly made. The proofs ought to be clear and unequivocal, so that "he that runs may read." It implies a conduct of which I should scorn to be guilty, and I hope to prove that it is wholly unfounded.

I quote your last number, page 387, wherein, as I have stated, the charge is repeated.

"In the original, the title-page, after setting forth the name, &c. adds,
"*Printed by order of the House of Representatives.*

1792.

"The present edition reads—
"[Printed by order of the House of Representatives.]"

1823.

This, and "no more, is the very head and front of my offending;" and on this foundation rests the strong charge of "*falsely*" leading the public astray.

It is to be regretted that these quotations are both materially wrong. Neither of them gives the printer's name; and both have the dates so placed as to refer to the order for printing, whereas the reference clearly is to the time of publication. This is a most vital error.

I now present you with the title-pages of two editions of this work, one printed at Washington, sixteen years ago, by order of the then House of Representatives, and the other that which has called forth the severity of your animadversions.

"Report of the Secretary of the Treasury on the subject of Manufactures, made the 5th of Decr. 1791.

"Dec. 7, 1809.
"*Printed by order of the House of Representatives.*

"Washington City:
"Printed by R. C. Weightman.
"1809."

The other runs thus, and is very materially different from your statement of it:

"Report of the Secretary of the Treasury [Alexander Hamilton] on the subject of Manufactures, made the 5th of Decr. 1791.

"Printed by order of the House of Representatives.

Philadelphia.
"Printed by Joseph R. A. Skenel.

Jan. 1, 1824."

Now, gentlemen, I appeal to you as men of honor, whether this title-page warrants the aspersion you have cast on me? Is there the slightest possible connexion between "*the order for printing*," and the *date*, *Jan.* 1, 1824?

But what temptation could there have been to the alleged literary fraud? Was a system matured by the full exercise of the splendid talents of Alexander Hamilton, one of the greatest statesmen that ever flourished in this country, in want of the *imprimatur* of the late House of Representatives? Could the alleged simulation of the order for printing add an iota to the force of the arguments? Surely not.

On this point I have said enough. Two of the other charges, which make a conspicuous figure in the indictment, those respecting capitals and notes of exclamation, you have abandoned, as wholly unwarranted.

On the subject of italic and indexes, I appeal to an enlightened public, whether an edition of a work can, with any appearance of propriety, be termed "spurious," when the text is preserved immaculate, without alteration, suppression, or interpolation, merely because various powerful passages, shedding strong light on a vital topic, in which the country is deeply interested, are italicized, and six of peculiar importance are marked by indexes? I throw myself on their good sense and candor for a favorable verdict.

Two other charges remain—"the INTERPOLATION *of a silly dialogue*," (which, by the way, is not an "*interpolation*,"—it is given in the form of an "*appendix*,") and the conversion of a few words printed in italics, into the Roman character. With respect to the first, I have only to observe, that it does not affect the text—does not, of course, impart the character of spuriousness to the edition, and stands or falls on its own merits. When the original work was set up, it was found that there were twelve pages vacant, and, as the dialogue bore strongly on the subject, it was introduced to fill the void. And with respect to the other, there is not one change that affects the grand question at issue in the United States, as to the protection of manufactures. The one you have selected goes to a question of comparatively little importance, whether manufacturing industry is or is not more profitable than agriculture. Had we adequate markets for all our agricultural productions, we might then discuss this

question. But as we have not, the conversion of a portion of the labor now devoted to agriculture in the other direction, could not fail to be highly salutary.

Notwithstanding the repugnance we all have to acknowledge our errors, I flatter myself you must acknowledge, that neither the editor nor the edition merited the censure you bestowed on them. MATHEW CAREY.

March 15, 1825.

Remark.

One word in reply. Mr. Carey is tilting against a shadow of his own conjuring. We have nowhere imputed to *him*, since he has avowed himself the publisher of the report, the slightest dishonesty of *motive*. Mr. Carey *meant*, no doubt, to make a genuine edition; all that we have done is to insist that it is *not* genuine. This is a mere matter of opinion, and, to our opinion, we have as much right as Mr. Carey has to his. What we said, we said deliberately, and now repeat deliberately. The ambiguity of the title-page—the conversion of unemphatic to emphatic passages—the interpolation, or appendage, (if that be a better word,) of a silly dialogue 'to fill up a void,'—and, above all, *the removal of the marks of emphasis which Alexander Hamilton himself affixed with his own hand to those passages which denied the superior productiveness of manufactures*,—are objections great enough, in all conscience, to impair the genuineness of the edition, without implicating, in the least, the motives of the editor.

AMERICAN NATURAL HISTORY.

A work has been projected, and, we understand, is now in press in Philadelphia, which promises to form an æra in the progress of American Natural Science. Its object is to accomplish what has long been regarded as a great *desideratum*—a complete history, at once philosophical and popular, of the American Animal Kingdom. Dr. John D. Godman, who has devoted himself to this arduous undertaking, is peculiarly qualified for the task; and the reputation he has already gained as an able and indefatigable teacher of anatomy,—as a Professor of the Philadelphia Museum,—and as an Editor of the Philadelphia Medical and Physical Journal, will, we are confident, be greatly confirmed and extended by the publication of his "American Natural History."

The first part will comprehend the quadrupeds of North

America, in three octavo volumes of about 400 pages each. The work will be rendered peculiarly valuable and interesting by a great number of beautiful engravings, from designs taken principally from the *living animal*, by Mr. C. A. Lesueur, Mr. Rider, and Mr. W. W. Wood. These gentlemen have, each of them, already given the most satisfactory evidence of their great ability and talent. Mr. Lesueur's reputation, in particular, both as a naturalist and an artist, stands too high to leave us room to doubt, for an instant, of the entire success of this part of the work. A great additional value will be conferred upon the "History" by the circumstance, that, among the numerous designs which are to be obtained, there will be many of animals now for the first time figured or engraved.

With respect to the authenticity and general merit of the descriptions, no question can be reasonably entertained, when it is known that in addition to the extensive observations and unwearied industry of Dr. Godman, we have the further guaranty of the zealous co-operation of the most distinguished naturalists of the United States. Professor Say, Mr. Charles Bonaparte, Dr. Harlan, Dr. Dekay, Dr. Mitchell, and Mr. Ord, have promised to contribute their assistance in rendering the contemplated History every way worthy of the most liberal support.

What peculiarly interests us in the success of Dr. Godman's work, is the gratifying reflection, that the honor will belong almost exclusively to our own countrymen, and that foreigners will no longer have it in their power to reproach us with a dependence upon transatlantic writers, for nearly all the useful knowledge we possess of the riches and resources of the American animal world.

SPIRIT OF SPRING.

"——*the flowers appear on the earth, the time of the singing of birds is come.*"

Spirit, that from the breathing South
Art wafted hither on dewy wing,
By the softened light of that sunny eye,
And that voice of wild-wood melody,
And those golden tresses wantoning,
And the perfum'd breath of that balmy mouth,
We know thee, Spirit of Spring—
Spirit of beauty, these thy charms, Spirit of Spring!

Spirit of Spring! thou com'st to wake
The slumbering energies of earth;
The zephyr's breath to thee we owe,
Thine is the streamlet's silver flow,
And thine the gentle flowret's birth,
And their silence, hark! the wild birds break,
For thy welcome, Spirit of Spring—
Spirit of life, thy triumphs these, Spirit of Spring!

Spirit of Spring! when the cheek is pale,
There is health in thy balmy air,
And peace in that brow of beaming bright,
And joy in that eye of sunny light,
And golden hope in that flowing hair:
Oh! that such influence e'er should fail
For a moment, Spirit of Spring—
Spirit of health, peace, joy and hope, Spirit of Spring!

Yet fail it must—for it comes of earth,
And it may not shame its place of birth,
Where the best can bloom but a single day,
And the fairest is first to fade away.

But oh! there's a changeless world above,
A world of peace, and joy, and love,
Where, gather'd from the tomb,
The holy hopes that earth has crost,
And the pious friends that we lov'd and lost,
Shall enjoy immortal bloom.

Who will not watch, and strive, and pray,
That his longing soul may soar away,
On Faith's untiring wing,
To join the throng of the saints in light,
In that world for ever fair and bright,
Of endless, cloudless SPRING!

March, 1825. DIGAMMA.

THE

NEW-YORK REVIEW.

JANUARY, 1826.

ART. VII.—*A Practical Treatise on Rail-Roads and Carriages, showing the principles of estimating their strength, proportions, expense and annual produce, and the conditions which render them effective, economical and durable ; with the theory, effect and expense of steam carriages, stationary engines, and gas machinery, illustrated by four engravings and numerous useful tables. By* THOMAS TREDGOLD, *Civil Engineer, Member of the Institution of Civil Engineers, &c.* New-York, E. Bliss & E. White.

THE subject of rail-roads has of late attracted an unusual degree of public attention in Great Britain, and has also become an object of discussion and interest in various parts of this country. It was therefore with much pleasure that we hailed the appearance of Tredgold's work in an American dress.

Of all public works, those which facilitate the means of internal commerce, and promote a rapid exchange, not only of commodities, but of information, and mental improvement, may be considered as marking in the most pointed manner, the state of civilization in the countries in which they are constructed.

It is only within a few years that the nations of Europe have reached an elevation in this respect, equal to that attained by the ancient Romans. To the works or remains of that people, wonderful alike for its humble origin, its rapid progress, and its final extent of dominion, legislators and jurists, poets and philosophers, mechanics, mathematicians, and even divines, looked, up to the beginning of the last century, for the models and principles of their several professions ; and were humbly content to imitate, without ever hoping to emulate or equal their originals.

This state of pupilage has at last ceased : and although we

may still venerate the literature of the ancient world, we have at length far surpassed them both in science and art.

In nothing was the wisdom of the Romans more remarkable, than in the construction of their public roads; and in this, perhaps alone of all the arts, are we still behind them. These roads, originally military ways, first furnished the means of conquest, next maintained the subjection of the conquered countries, and finally became the source of wealth and civilization to the barbarous people submitted to their arms. Besides the Appian, Flaminian and Emilian ways in Italy, the provinces of Gaul and Spain, and even their distant dominion of Britain, were every where intersected by lasting and durable roads, that even to the present day attest the labours of the unwearied legionary. That grass never again grew where a Roman army had trod, is no figurative expression, for we may still trace their brown uncultivated vestiges through the moors of Scotland, the marshes of Flanders, and the sierras of Castile. A Roman citizen might pass from his residence within the walls of the eternal city, and crossing the Tiber on the Milvian bridge, proceed by Milan to Aquileia on the extreme frontier of Italy, thence through Rhetia, Noricum, and Pannonia to Byzantium, traverse the whole breadth of Asia Minor, and after visiting Antioch and Tyre, enter Egypt and reach Alexandria; he might then extend his journey to Carthage and the Pillars of Hercules, and crossing the Mediterranean, return by Spain, Gaul and Liguria to Rome; performing, except where the sea intervened, his whole journey of near nine thousand miles, upon roads that for perfection of construction, and cost of erection, have never been equalled. Indeed, the care and precautions taken to render these roads lasting, appear to us excessive, and far beyond the importance of even those that were most frequented. Those on which most labour was expended were in the neighbourhood of the metropolis itself. Of these, the Appian way, although more than two thousand years have elapsed since it was completed, still exists for the length of several miles in the neighbourhood of Fondi, in a state almost perfect; not to mention many other places where considerable portions are found equally entire. The structure of these remains has been carefully examined, and will furnish us with an instance of the manner in which these great works were constructed. The upper surface is composed of great blocks of stone, extremely hard, and of a character that permitted it to be fashioned into irregular five and six sided polygons; these are so well fitted to each other, that the edge of a knife can with difficulty be passed into the joints. They are bedded in a mass of mortar filled with

pebbles, in such a way as to form a solid foundation for them, and support their surfaces at a uniform level in spite of their different thicknesses. Below all is a second bed of mortar filled with chip stone, and forming with it a solid mass, that at the present day is harder than the stones themselves, and probably attained this hardness soon after it was laid. The whole constitutes a body of upwards of three feet in thickness, and is almost every where elevated above the surface of the ground.

The roads of modern times are much less expensive in their construction; they are also much less fitted for the purpose of easy conveyance either of passengers or of commodities. On the continent of Europe, particularly in France, the system of roads paved with flat stones in the middle, still continues, a relic probably of the Roman customs; but so deficient in solidity are they, as to require constant repairs, and they are generally in such bad order that all light carriages prefer to travel upon the sides on the earth, except where this part of the road is rendered impracticable by the lodgement of water.

In the south east of England, the country furnishes, at small depths beneath the surface, beds of solid flints. These appear to have been resorted to at a very early period, as materials for roads; and when properly selected, they form perhaps the best and smoothest paths that exist in the world. To General Roy that country is indebted, in a great measure, for having been the first to discover that fragments of the rocks found in *situ*, in convenient positions and prepared for the purpose, were equally valuable as materials for roads with flinty gravel. Yet the true principles of applying either of these substances were not understood; and hence the very great variety in the quality of different roads, and even of the same road at different periods, arising from uncertain and vague views of the modes of making or repairing.

The true principles of road making have lately been laid down by M'Adam, upon a basis that cannot be controverted; and the introduction of these principles into general practice, is causing a rapid advance to perfection in the roads of England, already superior to those of every part of the continent of Europe, with the single exception of Sweden.

The superiority of the roads of England is owing in no small degree to their turnpike system, by which the cost of repairing the roads is thrown upon those who actually travel them, who in most cases contribute with pleasure. The same system has been partially introduced into the United States, but its most valuable feature has been neglected. The turnpikes of England are all public trusts, whereas in this country

they have been committed to private speculation. In both countries, the original capital has generally been furnished by the proprietors of the lands through which they pass; and for this the use of the road is itself frequently a sufficient compensation. If interest in addition is paid them, they may be considered to have made a very profitable investment; if there be any surplus, it goes to America to enhance these profits, while in England it is applied to increase the public accommodation. If the undertaking be unsuccessful among us, the road is abandoned, and frequently lost to the public; while in England in a similar event, the gates are still kept up, and the tolls applied, in addition to the statute labour, that is in such a case called in, to the repairs of the road.

Every road, however well constructed, is liable to a very considerable degree of friction. Upon a level road, this, however, is the only resistance; and in consequence, a horse that will not raise a weight of more than 187 pounds with a velocity of $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles per hour perpendicularly upwards, will draw *fifteen hundred weight* upon a well constructed carriage, itself weighing seven hundred weight, on a level road. But this power is rapidly diminished with a change in the inclination or in the smoothness of the road: while a man may mount perpendicularly up, as when upon a ladder, loaded with a considerable weight, a horse becomes powerless even to raise his own body upon a plane whose inclination exceeds 45°. It is therefore a most important principle in laying out ordinary roads, that the change of level should be the least possible. Hence it is only in an absolutely level country, or one of a regular inclination in the required direction, that a road in a straight line ought to be admitted. Even in a gently undulating country, the road should deviate to the right or the left in such a manner, as to lie in one level line, or in as few planes of gentle inclination as possible. Is a ridge to be crossed, its lowest pass is to be sought, and the road to be conducted thither by approaches along the sides of the ridge, that if developed will form a plane of uniform inclination; and this inclination, if the road is to be travelled by loaded carriages, should never exceed one foot in forty, or an angle of 1° 30′.

In applying these principles to a hilly country, the distance measured horizontally will be frequently considerably increased, but this is a matter of no consequence whatsoever; the effective length of a road for pleasure carriages, is measured by the time occupied in passing over it, and when used for the conveyance of heavy articles, it depends upon the compound ratio of the weight and the time. It will in some cases happen, that the distance actually travelled may be diminished, by deviating

from the straight line, for this distance is not the aerial horizontal line, but may be measured by the number of revolutions performed by the wheels of the carriage. More practical blunders have been committed in this country in this branch of civil engineering, than in any other. It appears to be adopted as a principle, that the direct aerial straight line is the only one that is admissible in theory, and that in practice, the deviation from this must be the least possible; when, in truth, the principle that should be received in preference is, that the road which will be travelled in the shortest time, between two places situated upon the same level, is that which deviates least from a horizontal plane; and between two places of sufficient elevation, is that which approaches nearest to a plain of uniform inclination.

Other circumstances, besides those of difference of level and interposing ridges, must be taken into account; of these, the most important is, the nature of the soil, which will sometimes call for deviations of a still greater amount from the straight line. The convenience of the inhabitants, the position of old established settlements and villages, are also points that should never be neglected, whether we consider a road as a public enterprise, or a private speculation from which profit is anticipated.

The erroneous idea of a straight aerial line, is not only received as truth by country surveyors and road makers, but has crept into legislative enactments, and has, in many cases, been productive of essential evil. We have a most noted instance of this kind in a neighbouring state. A law granting a turnpike charter, required that it should be laid out in a straight line between its extreme points:—now, to draw a straight line upon the ground between two points not in sight of each other, is no easy problem in practical surveying, and, for a time, baffled the utmost skill of the persons engaged to lay out the route. This was, however, at last overcome, and the road constructed on this line has for twelve years enjoyed the unenvied reputation of being the worst turnpike road in the United States, and one half of it, being remote from human habitation, is no longer travelled, a lateral route having been brought into competition with it to accommodate the inhabitants, and thus every chance of remuneration to the proprietors destroyed. This is probably an extreme case; but no person can travel in our country, without meeting, at every step, with instances of immense expenditure, applied unprofitably to the projectors, and disadvantageously to the public, from an ignorance of a few simple and fundamental principles. Nor is this ignorance confined

to those who have been deficient in the means of acquiring knowledge; it is to be found in national works, where scientific engineers have been engaged. The approach to our national military academy from the Hudson, constructed at vast expense, and under the direction of the corps of United States engineers, is hardly accessible for a loaded carriage; but if the learned professor of engineering shall annually, in his lectures, point it out to his pupils as a model of errors that are to be avoided, we cannot say but that the money has been well laid out, and the example most instructive.

The friction being the principal resistance that is to be overcome upon a well laid out road, it will be evident, that every diminution that can be effected in this cause of retardation, is important; hence the advantages of well finished and compact carriages, of smooth and hard roads; but the properties of smoothness and hardness may be carried to too great an extent, by causing injury to the horse, or depriving him of a firm footing. For this reason, the path of the horse, and of the wheels, may, when roads approximate to perfection, be made of different materials. The first approximation to a construction of this kind, is to be found in the pavement of the streets of Pisa, in which tracks for the wheels of carriages are formed of parallel rows of smooth hard stones, closely jointed, and firmly imbedded.* The railway introduced nearly a century since in the vicinity of the coal mines of Northumberland, is a more important and valuable application of this principle. In this original form of the railway, parallel rails of wood were laid from the mouth of the mine to the place of embarkation of the coal, which were faced with bars of wrought iron to receive the wheels of the wagons employed in the trade. Railways have been since much improved by the substitution of entire tracks of cast iron firmly placed upon stone bases, and innumerable instances of these are to be found in various parts of Great Britain. The advantage possessed by a railway over a well constructed road, when animal power is used as the propelling force, is great. We have already stated, that a horse, upon a good level road, draws a load of fifteen hundred weight; upon a railway, he will draw, with equal ease, and at the same velocity, a load of ten tons, giving the railway the advantage of seven to one. But as roads are very rarely free from ascents and descents, the effective proportion between a

* This example is well worthy of imitation in the pavements of great cities, and, it is to be hoped, will not be neglected in the contemplated renewal of the pavement of Broadway.

railway and the best ordinary roads, may be fairly considered as equivalent in practice to a ratio of ten to one. Wherever, then, the traffic upon a road is sufficient to pay the interest of the cost of construction, a railway may be substituted for it, and even where animal power is used, to very great advantage.

But when animal power is the sole disposable agent, there are other modes of conveyance far more advantageous than either roads or railways. The load that would require an enormous force to lift it perpendicularly upwards, and a very great one to drag it along a horizontal plane, is rendered comparatively easy to remove, if placed upon a well constructed carriage; and this advantage is, as we have seen, increased in a decimal ratio if a railway be substituted. But if, instead of a carriage, it be placed upon a vessel floating in a liquid, its whole weight is supported by the hydrostatic pressure of the liquid, both this and the friction are at once annihilated, and we have in their lieu to overcome the resistance of a fluid. Such a resistance is, at small velocities, far less than the friction, and may, therefore, be much more readily overcome by the application of animal strength. There are even many cases where a much cheaper agent may be substituted in the propulsion of vessels. In the infancy of navigation, paddles first, and then oars, were employed. The resistance opposed by the wind, to a course contrary to its direction, and the aid that it afforded when favourable, led, at a period more early than the date of our oldest profane histories, to the introduction of the sail. But the use of this was, until very recently, limited, and its most important advantages unknown; spread nearly at right angles to the plane of the keel, it was only employed in the case of favourable winds; when their direction was opposed to the desired course, it was furled, and the vessel either abandoned to the influence of the wind, or urged against it with painful efforts by means of oars. Such was the system of navigation employed by the ancient nations, and such were the only methods in use in Europe up to a time little prior to the date of the discovery of America. That the wind itself, acting upon a vessel of a peculiar form, floating in a fluid whose law of action presented an intense resistance to motion in any direction other than the plane of the keel, afforded the means of progress in its very teeth, was not understood, until mathematical and mechanical science, the precursors of the revival of letters and the fine arts, began to be studied in Italy. In this country, and at this period, the nautical manœuvre that is technically called *beating*, appears to have originated; and from this discovery, connected with that of the mariner's compass, an invention of

nearly simultaneous date, we deduce the modern improvements in navigation. By means of these improvements, the most distant parts of the world are brought comparatively near to each other, and the ocean, that might at first sight appear to be a barrier to the intercourse of nations, becomes their common highway, and the link that unites them in one great family. A ship of 500 tons burthen does not require more than fifteen men to navigate it, and performs the voyage between the ports of Liverpool and New-York, in an average time, that, of late years, does not exceed a month; six passages, or three complete trips, are readily performed in the course of a year, making ample allowance for detention in port, and the performance of necessary repairs. Were animal power, to be substituted for the action of the wind in this trade, such a vessel would require to propel it with the same average speed, the power of eighty horses, or of five hundred and sixty oarsmen. Such are the advantages to be derived from the navigation of an ocean, over which blow winds, varying in intensity and direction indeed, but nearly constant in duration. Advantages of less amount, but still of important value, are derived from the navigation of great rivers and lakes, and of arms of the sea; with these, the portion of the American continent possessed by the inhabitants of the United States, is intersected in a manner that affords the most ready communication between many of its most important and interesting parts.

As rivers decrease in magnitude and importance or as their currents become more rapid, the application of wind as a moving power, becomes of less and less value, until it is finally inferior, in every valuable result, to animal strength; for the more convenient application of this natural agent, towing paths should be formed upon the banks, and the rivers are converted into canals having but one level.

There are many rivers deep enough to permit the passage even of large vessels, and that have no obstruction, of moment, in their beds; but which, in consequence of the rapidity of their current, will not admit of a descending trade. If dams or weirs be erected across such streams, at proper distances from each other, the velocity of the intermediate water will be much lessened, its volume and depth will be proportionably increased, and, from a combination of these two circumstances, it will be fitted almost equally well for vessels ascending or descending its channel. But over the weirs the water will pour itself, when the intermediate space is full, with great velocity, forming, in most cases, a waterfall. In order to permit the passage of vessels, spaces are left in the walls; to these are

at first adapted sluices, that, when improved, became locks. Locks may also be applied upon lateral cuts, where the river is interrupted by falls or rapids.

River navigations, unless the channel be deep and capacious, and the volume of water great, are attended with risk and uncertainty; in summer there will be a deficiency of water; in times of heavy rain, and during the melting of the snow, in such climates as ours, the current will be so violent as to render the passage of boats downwards extremely dangerous, and upwards impossible; hence experience has shown, that it is in all cases better to construct an entire lateral cut or canal, than to trust to the natural channel of the river. Nor does the application of canals stop here; wherever water can be found in abundance, or carried by artificial means to the summit of a dividing ridge, a canal may be constructed, and its benefits extended. On a canal, a horse that, upon a railway, does not, as we have already stated, draw more than ten tons at the rate of two and a half miles per hour, becomes capable of drawing thirty tons with equal velocity; and thus the mechanical value of the former, is to that of the latter, in the proportion of three to one, while the latter possesses a tenfold advantage over the best roads. Other circumstances, however, may arise, to place the railway more nearly on a par with the canal; it is less costly in its construction, may be used in any situation whatsoever, being applicable to the most mountainous countries; and is independent of supplies of water, that, in some particular cases and climates, are not to be procured. In England, it is found, that a railway costs no more than a third of the price of a canal; but in this country, it is probable they would approach more nearly to an equality in this respect. It is, upon the whole, to be inferred, that if animal power be the agent employed, and local circumstances will permit, the canal is, whenever practicable, to be preferred to the railway; for the advantages of a canal may be obtained even in mountainous countries, should any substitute for locks suited to such localities be successfully introduced into practice. Of such substitutes, the inclined plane is that which presents the greatest chance of successful application; and in the printed reports of the commissioners of the Morris canal, a contrivance of this kind is described, in which we perceive no one of the difficulties to exist that have hitherto prevented the general introduction of this principle. It is to be regretted, that a delay has occurred in making a full improvement upon it; a delay that has not only impeded the progress of the scientific part of this subject, but has been most

injurious to those who have embarked their funds in this once promising speculation.

The cultivated genius of our countryman, Fulton, has introduced into navigation a new power, which bids fair, upon great rivers or lakes, and upon the ocean, to supersede in a great measure both animal power, and that cheaper, although less certain agent, the wind. To him we are indebted for applying with success, the improvements made by Watt in the steam engine, to the propulsion of vessels. They have already, upon the great rivers and sounds of our Atlantic coast, superseded all other modes of conveyance in cases where the time of passage, or the certainty of arrival, are matters of importance, and thus travellers seldom are found choosing any other conveyance than the steam-boat, and even light and valuable freights are frequently shipped in them from choice. Upon the Mississippi and its branches, where the current is rapid, they monopolize the freight as well as the passengers. The safety of steam-boats upon the most tempestuous seas, has been fully tested, and the time is at hand when they are to be applied to the longest voyages. No difficulty, indeed, remains, except the great bulk of the fuel, and the improvements that are daily taking place in the steam engine, promise to obviate this in a very great degree. Nature, however, opposes a limit to the velocity that a steam-boat can acquire, even in the deepest and widest waters; the resistance of fluids increases with the square of the velocity, and thus, to increase the power of the engine, will give no practical advantage beyond a certain limit, that is within the reach of a calculation, that, although its principles are obvious, does not appear hitherto to have been made. But in practice it will probably never be necessary to approach this limit.

As the channel decreases in size below a dimension that has reference to the size of the vessel, the resistance of the fluid increases, until, in small canals, this increase is found not to differ much from the ratio of the cubes of the velocities; and hence it is yet problematical, whether steam can be applied to more advantage than animal power in the navigation of canals, were there no other impediment than this. But when steam is applied to propel a boat, a large wave is thrown back by the wheels, and in increased velocities beyond three miles an hour, a wave is also raised by the prow of the boat. These act to tear down and wear away the sides of the canal, and hence steam-boats are inadmissible into artificial navigations, and even the velocity that may be given by animal power, to lightly load-

ed vessels, is injurious. This last fact has been experienced upon our western canal, where the banks have needed constant repairs, in consequence of there being no regulation for limiting the speed of the vessels, and where it has been found absolutely necessary to pave the sides of the canal. We may, therefore, conclude, that steam engines can never be introduced into boats that navigate canals, with any hope of success. Another mode has been proposed, which consists in applying endless chains to the boats; these chains are stretched between two stationary steam engines, by the machinery of which they are caused to revolve, boats may be fastened to either side of the chain, and thus drawn between the drums over which it passes. The wave thrown back by the wheels is thus obviated, but that raised in front remains, and the acceleration of the boat is retarded by a resistance increasing nearly with the cube of the velocity. From all these facts, there is every reason to believe, that the practice of inland navigation is not to reap any great benefit from the improvements that are daily taking place in the steam engine. With railways the case is far different; the friction of wheels upon solid bodies is a constant quantity, and has no relation to the velocity; hence, when a body is once set in motion, a very small additional effort is necessary to increase its speed in a very great degree. When the power applied is one whose velocity is limited, whose maximum effort is performed at a low speed, and which loses in effective power, with every acceleration, no advantage is to be derived from this principle; this is the case with animal strength. But the moment that we begin to apply steam as the moving power, the difficulty vanishes; we are yet to learn by experiment, the velocity that would become unsafe and inconvenient in the application of steam to the motion of carriages, while in calculation, that at which the resistance of the air would become a sensible quantity, is extremely remote. It is, however, only very recently, that the steam engine has assumed a shape that would fit it for the draught of carriages upon rail-roads. It is, indeed, upwards of fifty years since Cugnot attempted, and, as is said by French authors, successfully, to propel a wheel carriage by steam. But his discovery, even if successful, was abandoned, as all discoveries must be that are too much in advance of the general knowledge of the age. The possibility of the same application of steam certainly occurred to Watt, who also was aware of the ease with which his own engine could be applied to the purposes of navigation; of both these facts we have evidence from those who enjoyed his conversation, and the idea is embodied by Darwin, his intimate

friend, in prophetic verse,* at least ten years before Fulton succeeded in applying Watt's discovery to the motion of vessels, by means whose very beauty and simplicity have deprived his family of advantages that a crowd of inferior inventors enjoy.

But the engine of Watt is not applicable to the rail-road; the water of condensation is in itself a load for the machine, and the necessity of frequently replacing it by fresh supplies of cold fluid, is a complete bar to locomotion. The effect might, indeed, be produced by numerous stationary engines placed along the line of the railway, with endless revolving chains set in motion by them, but such an application would be both inconvenient and expensive.

It is to Trevithick that we owe the invention of an engine fitted for locomotion. His improvements in the high pressure engine are not prior to those of our countryman Evans; but while the latter directed his attention to navigation, the former had in view the application of steam to draught. He was so far successful, as to give to wagons heavily loaded with coal, a velocity of five miles an hour; but even in the vicinity of the mines it was found more expensive than canal navigation. In this original application of the locomotive engine, which we saw near Leeds, in England, in 1815, a fifth wheel was added to the carriage conveying the engine; this was made to revolve by the piston of the engine, through the intervention of a crank, exactly as the water wheels are propelled in Fulton's steamboat; its circumference was cut into logs which applied themselves to the teeth of a rack laid as a third rail. In theory, there might appear to be no limit to the velocity that might thus be given after the load was once set in motion, by increasing the number of strokes of the piston, or making this wheel, instead of acting directly on the rack, turn a pinion on the axis of another wheel. But the difficulties that arise in practice from the imperfection of workmanship, and the nature of the materials of which wheels and racks can alone be cheaply and solidly constructed, are such as to affect the law of the action of friction in this particular instance. Hence a variety of simultaneous attempts occurred, but were unsuccessful. In one, an apparatus similar in its mechanism to the muscles and bones of a human leg; was used, and in another it was attempted to force the carriage forward by the friction of one of its wheels, that was made to revolve by the engine upon one of the lateral

* "Soon shall thy arm, unconquered steam, afar
Drag the slow barge, and whirl the rapid car," &c.

rails of the road. This last principle was also attempted to be carried into execution upon a common road in Pennsylvania, but failed in both cases; yet it is astonishing how near it came to perfect success, and that the very failure did not lead to the discovery of the mechanical principle that has been finally successful, and will probably, before long, introduce a change in the commerce of the world, not less important than that already introduced by the steam engine in its other applications.

That the friction of the wheel upon the rail is considerable, is well known; and when increased to a certain point, must act in such a manner as to cause a carriage to move forward, and even to draw others after it, is not to be doubted. All, then, that remained, was to increase this friction to the desired limit. In the experiments we have mentioned, but one of the wheels being made to revolve, hence but a fourth part of the whole friction was applicable to this object, and but a fourth part of the practicable effect was produced; could the whole of the wheels be made to revolve by the action of the engine, this greatest effort would be applicable, and this has since been effected by a very simple and ingenious contrivance. By this method, the whole friction of the wheels upon the railway is made to act in the manner of a fixed resistance or prop; and as the friction of iron upon iron, in motion, is one twenty-fifth part of the pressure, the effect is the same as if the engine upon its carriages were attached to a revolving chain by a bolt capable of bearing that portion of its weight; if the resistance were to exceed the direct pressure of such a weight, the bolt would break; and for a similar reason, when the wheels revolve upon the rails, no progressive motion would be produced when the resistance exceeded that proportion of the load. But this friction of one twenty-fifth part of the pressure, is not that which opposes the progressive motion of a carriage upon a railway; it is much less in consequence of two circumstances: (1) the physical advantage gained by the rubbing body rolling, instead of sliding upon the plane; and, (2) the mechanical advantage obtained by the action of the wheel as a lever, where the power is applied at the circumference of the wheel, and the resistance at the circumference of the axle.

In the carriages usually employed upon railways, the effective resistance opposed by friction upon a horizontal plane, is found by experiment to be diminished in consequence of the action of these two causes, to one two-hundredth part of the load, or one-eighth part of the friction of the wheel upon the rail. It might hence be inferred, that but one-seventh part of

the whole power is consumed in propelling an engine mounted on wheels with a given velocity, and that it may draw after it, without a diminution of speed, wagons bearing seven times its whole weight, including boiler, water, and carriage; and this has been found to be actually the case in practice.

When the power of an engine exceeds, in however small a degree, the force necessary to set such a train of carriages in motion, the excess will act as an accelerating force, and the velocity of the carriages would continually increase, if the power of the engine could be kept up to its primitive intensity, until the number of strokes performed by its piston reached a maximum. But it is impossible to keep the engine, whose velocity is thus increasing, at a uniform intensity of action; for an increased velocity of the piston demands an increased supply of steam of equal pressure, and as the boiler cannot furnish this, the pressure must diminish, until the excess of power or accelerating force will be zero, at which time the wagons attain their maximum of speed, and the whole system assumes that state, which, by writers on mechanics, is called dynamical equilibrium. The velocity at which this will occur in practice, will depend on the original power of the engine, and the excess of its locomotive power over the friction. Taking all circumstances into account, it is not probable that it will ever be expedient to increase the velocity to more than twelve or fourteen miles per hour; but as this is five times as great as the velocity at which the maximum effort is produced upon a canal, while the load is fully one third of what would be drawn by an equal power through the water, it is evident, that the moment that circumstances will admit the application of the power of steam, rail-ways must be preferred to canals, and in many cases supersede them altogether. The principal of these circumstances is the possibility of procuring a supply of fuel, on such terms as will reduce the cost of the power to a level with animal labour. Hence, when the chief article of transportation is coal, little hesitation need be felt in adopting the railway, with locomotive engines, in preference to any other mode of conveyance.

So also, wherever the number of travellers is great, and the goods to be transported of such value as to render the freight a small object, when compared with certainty, rapidity, and safety, it is to be presumed that rail-ways must be a valuable and lucrative investment of capital. We have in a previous part of this paper, spoken of the materials of which rail-ways are constructed; and we there mentioned that cast iron had superseded wood in Great Britain; wrought iron has also been advantageously introduced in some late erections in that coun-

try. We are, however, disposed to think, that in most parts of the United States, wood will be found preferable to either. Under this impression, we have seen with great pleasure, a model constructed by Mr. Fleming, an intelligent civil engineer, who has been domiciliated among us, of a wooden rail-way; its most valuable feature is its adaptation to small changes of level in the ground, which is attained by elevating every part of it above the surface, except in cases where deep cuts become necessary. A rail-way of this description, if roofed in, like the better kind of wooden bridges, would be very durable, and cost far less than one of cast iron.

Among the modifications of the rail-way that have been proposed in England, is one by Palmer, composed of a single rail, which embodies a similar principal of elevation above the mean surface. We do not, however, mention this with a view of praising it, as we conceive that in every respect the double wheel track laid with edged rails is preferable, except in the cost of original erection; but to state, that it if have any merit, it may be claimed as having first occurred to an American, Col. Sergeant, of Boston, having invented and proposed a similar kind several years previous to Mr. Palmer. We hope, however, that no national feeling may interpose to lead to the adoption of this plan in preference to others, whose real merits are much greater.

The author of the work before us is an engineer, much distinguished for his science, and for the numerous valuable works of which he is the author. The treatise under consideration, is of all others that we have seen on the subject, the best manual for those who may be called upon to direct the execution of works of the kind. There are others among the great number that have issued from the British press on this subject, that embody matter more interesting to the general and superficial reader, but none that contain any thing like the amount of information that can be usefully applied in forming plans and estimates for new works. The calculations of the strength of rails, the demonstration of their proper figure, and the interesting experiments, and most valuable deductions in relation to the friction of wheel carriages, are new and important additions to the science of the engineer. Should wood be employed in this country, our engineers will find in another treatise of the same author, that will probably become the subject of a subsequent article in this work, all the necessary additional information, founded upon a series of accurate and well contrived experiments, principally made by the author himself. This, work is perhaps, the first of a similar character that has appeared in an

American dress. It is an experiment, therefore, in the book trade, and, we hope, will be attended with such success as to induce the enterprising publishers to give us more of a similar character, or even to apply to some competent person to give the American public a full treatise on civil engineering, compiled from the best foreign sources, and containing every valuable addition that has grown out of the practice of our own country. Such a work would be of extreme value; the greatest difficulty our engineers have to struggle with, is the want of knowledge of the practice of Europe, and of the scientific principles of the works they are employed to superintend. The errors committed in road making have been mentioned. We have been more successful in canals, if we take our own state as the instance, but in other directions many failures have occurred that are forgotten in the brilliancy of that important enterprise. Even the canals of New-York are not completed, and competent judges do not hesitate to declare that much remains to be done before they can compete, in correctness and solidity of execution, with those of Europe, however they may exceed in extent any work accomplished within so short a time, and at so small a cost.

LECTURE INTRODUCTORY TO A COURSE OF LECTURES ON APPLIED MECHANICS, DELIVERED AT THE NEW-YORK ATHENEUM, IN THE WINTER OF THE YEARS 1824–25, BY JAMES RENWICK, PROFESSOR OF CHEMISTRY AND EXPERIMENTAL PHILOSOPHY IN COLUMBIA COLLEGE, NEW-YORK. (*Concluded.*)

But it is not with these countries that we have any immediate concern; we have derived from them (at least directly) none of our knowledge—and among them, from the neglect of science, the arts are becoming daily less and less perfect. The nations that more naturally excite an interest in our minds, are those of whom a knowledge has reached us through the traditions and histories of the Greeks, and the more authentic and remote, but less circumstantial details, that exist in the sacred records of the Hebrews. These traditions, histories, and records, carry us back to the period when a portion of the human race spread themselves over the plains of Shinar, the mountains and glens of Palestine, and the islands and peninsulas of Greece and Italy, in the state of shepherds, or wandering hunters. In these modes of life, arts are speedily forgotten; when their increasing numbers compelled them to till the ground, and the strong hand of mighty hunters forced them to congregate in cities, their condition must at first have been wretched.

The inhabitant of Babylon, the glory of the world, or of Thebes, with its hundred gates, were devoid of innumerable articles that our meanest citizen considers as absolutely essential. If favourable climates, and even azure skies, rendered them less dependent than we are upon the mechanic arts, still they were deprived of many articles that would have contributed to their comfort, and having no intercourse with foreign nations, were compelled to rely upon their own productions for all that either supports or embellishes life; their luxuries, their comforts, and their conveniences, were restricted within a narrow compass; constantly occupied in labouring for the mere support of a miserable existence, the great mass of the people possessed neither power nor influence, and were the abject slaves of their rulers. While enormous tumuli attest the existence of Babylon—while pyramid, obelisk, and sphinx, indicate the power of the orders of Egypt—no vestige has come down to us of private habitations; they have long since returned to the earth whence their materials were derived. Yet, while we look in vain in these countries for any trace of the buildings that sheltered the mass of the nations, or even for any public works destined to promote the general health, or to improve the state of commerce, we still find either strong indications, or the almost perfect remains, of many great and wonderful structures. These have sometimes been considered as an evidence of high progress in the applied sciences; but more mature reason would induce us to believe them rather the product of mere brute force, applied under the direction of despotic governments, by which the time and even the life of the subject were considered as of no value, than the result of enlightened art. Such was the power and wealth of the ruler, such the abject condition and poverty of the ruled, in those remote times, that any number of men, even to the population of entire nations, might be easily commanded; at the present day, on the contrary, such is the value of labour, such the improvements in the circumstances of the people, as to prevent governments from either executing as stupendous works, or assembling as enormous armies, as they formerly did. The secret of the mighty buildings of the ancients, lies neither in the skill of the artist, nor the application of the aid derived from science—but in the despotic power of the ruler, and the abject submission of the populace. As may be expected from such a state of society, taste in the arrangement of the parts, grace and beauty of form, are wanting in the monuments of Egyptian art; but they are marked by a severe grandeur of shape, and by the minute and

laborious finish of innumerable small parts, that rather detract from, than add to, the general effect.

When we consider even the pyramids themselves, as the sole exertion of the whole disposable force of a nation for a number of years, our admiration of them will soon be diminished; and still more, if we compare the labour bestowed upon them, with that devoted to less imposing, but more useful purposes, in modern times. The pyramid of Cheops is unequalled in its mass by the erections of any succeeding age; it is said to have employed the labour of 100,000 men for 20 years, and we may readily be satisfied of the credibility of this account, if we consider the relation between the government and the people, and the want of scientific skill that then existed. Vast as this pile is, were the power of the steam engines that are engaged in the manufactures of the British empire, applied for a few months, the same effect would be produced, and another pyramid, equal in magnitude to that of Cheops, erected, without withdrawing a single person from his ordinary employment. But although the capacity to execute equal monuments exists at the present day in so much greater a degree than it did among the ancient nations, governments have no longer the power to apply this capacity to similar objects; and even in the execution of projects of general utility, they can combine a much less formidable array of human force than was frequently done by the despotic governments of ancient times. Public opinion, which is rapidly establishing an empire that must subvert all others, controls the acts of the most absolute monarch; and even private and individual interests are frequently urged with such force, as to defeat plans in which whole nations are interested.

The pyramids are not the only instances that might be adduced, of the immense works erected by ancient nations, and referable to similar principles. The city of Babylon surpassed in extent, and in the magnitude of its public works, any metropolis of modern times. The height of its walls, their vast circuit, that forbade its being blockaded, and the strength of its brazen gates, rendered it apparently impregnable by human force; if our modern weapons would be sufficient to effect a breach, none possessed by the ancients could have produced any impression; and even the skill of Demetrius, the taker of cities himself, would have been found ineffectual to reduce it. Its materials, although, according to our ideas, perishable, possessed a durability sufficient to withstand that climate, and even in our own days their bricks have been found bearing the original impress of the manufacturer; but the wrath of man.

and the wrath of the elements, were made to work the declared purposes of the Divinity; and nothing now remains except a few vast but misshapen masses, to testify its existence; they stand the monuments of the divine displeasure; around them satyrs dance, and in them the owl dwells; wild beasts cry in her desolate houses, and dragons inhabit her pleasant palaces.

The actual existence of some of these monuments, and the historical account of others, have rendered it fashionable with infidel writers to cry up the early civilization of the ancient nations, and more particularly the remote refinement of the Egyptians. From such considerations, they have laboured to produce subtile arguments against the truth of the sacred historians, and, by inference, of revealed religion itself. One of their strongest instances was drawn from the zodiac of the temple of Dendra, whence a chain of reasoning was deduced, that carried the origin of Egyptian science, and even the erection of that very temple, to a period of 25,000 years before the Christian æra, an antiquity more than five times as great as that given to the present surface of the globe by the Mosaic history. Within the last year, the description of this temple has been deciphered, and its erection referred to the times of the first Roman emperors. To this æra the zodiac corresponds as well as to the more early one, and all cavil is at once refuted.

In like manner, if we strip these nations of the borrowed plumes in which modern ingenuity has decked them, we shall find that their boasted refinement probably equalled that of the Mexicans and Peruvians of our own continent at the time of the discovery, a state certainly far more enviable than that of our other aborigines, but not farther removed from it, on the one hand, than from the civilization of modern Europe on the other.

With Grecian history, an era more favourable to the happiness of the human race commences; other arts began to be cultivated than those which merely contributed to the splendour of idolatrous worship, or the barbarous magnificence of despotism; the common people acquired rights, and a portion of the public expenditure was devoted to their accommodation. Of the public works of Greece and Rome, many were exclusively intended for the use of the populace; thus, we find, in every direction in the countries held by them at different times, the remains of porticoes, theatres, and amphitheatres, of roads, bridges, and acqueducts. Archimedes, a Greek of Sicily, was the first who successfully applied science to valuable practical

purposes; and under these governments some progress was made in the comfort of social life, and the general happiness of mankind was much increased. Without attaining any thing like the perfection in which we now behold them, the mechanic arts, aided by improvements in mathematical science, made a slow but steady progress.

It would be trite and common-place, to speak of the overthrow of the Roman empire, the loss of the arts and applied science for nearly a thousand years, their revival in Italy in the 16th century, and their gradual diffusion throughout Europe. From this brilliant era dates the successful cultivation of science as applied to the mechanic arts; and a most decided amelioration, as well in the state of the man of philosophic research, as in that of governments, and of society in general. The student of philosophy no longer secludes himself in the crypt of some dark temple of idolatry, or inscribes hieroglyphic characters upon obelisks; but all his researches are directed to some object of practical application. While he thus adds to the knowledge of his cotemporaries, their improved condition contributes to his reputation and honour; no longer dependent upon the smiles of the great, the patronage of the priesthood, or the favour of kings, he looks to the public for a remuneration commensurate with the utility of his speculations; and that public, enriched by his labours, and those of his predecessors, possesses the ability of amply rewarding him.

If no modern king or government is able to lay up treasures like those of Solomon or Crœsus, or to erect pyramids—or if they cannot, like Xerxes, march their millions to the field by an application of their immediate revenues—yet the general wealth is now incontestably greater; formidable armaments may be prepared by money borrowed from the purse of productive industry, and incalculable resources derived from the skill and mechanical science of the citizen.

A man now spins, by the aid of engines founded on scientific principles, one hundred times as much yarn as he formerly could have done, even with the help of a machine; there are manufactories in England, moved by steam engines, in which the quantity of yarn produced daily, would extend a distance equal to twice the circumference of the globe. The art of weaving has improved in a like degree; the same country has establishments with power looms that turn out finished a piece of cotton stuff every minute, or a length of 15 miles per day; and in this country, if the manufacturing establishments be less extensive, the machinery is yet more perfect. A countryman of our own has invented an engine propelled by steam, that

manufactures 60 pins per minute. This branch of manufacture, not many years back, furnished Adam Smith with an illustration of the effect of the division of labour, in increasing the productive industry of a country; it will now furnish a more striking instance of the advantages of the application of machinery constructed upon scientific principles, over the unassisted exertion of men, even when applied in the most advantageous manner. The steam engine has produced in this way, in England, a change, in our day, that has no precedent in any former era. It has, so to speak, "multiplied the time of man, as gas lights have multiplied his hours of daylight.* But what is the steam engine itself, compared with the machine invented by Mr. Babbage for calculating mathematical tables; this performs a work that has hitherto been considered as purely intellectual; and science has thus given us the means of abridging and saving the labour of mind."

Of the effect of applied science upon individual happiness, we may judge from a brief recapitulation of the advantages we ourselves enjoy, by living in an age in which all the mechanic arts have been carried by its aid to a state of unexampled perfection, and in a city where a successful commerce enables us to make the most distant regions of the earth contribute to supply our wants. For us the silk-worms of China, Italy, and Provence, exert their art, and the looms of Nankin, Lyons, Florence, and London, labour; for us the sheep of Saxony and Spain are shorn, and the clothiers of Gloster and Yorkshire ply their shuttles; for us the cotton of Carolina and Bourbon is rolled upon the spindles of Manchester; for us is raised the hemp of the Ukraine, the flax of Munster, and the sugar-cane of the Indies; for us bloom the spicy forests of Sumatra and the Moluccas, the coffee gardens of Yemen, Java, and Cuba; to close our apartments, we interpose screens of a transparent substance pervious to light, and the calorific rays of the sun, but impervious to the blast, and retentive of the grosser heat that we generate by the process of combustion; to give us light, the whale is pursued to his most secret haunts among the eternal ices of either pole; and soon will the gaseous product of his oil circulate through our streets, like the vital fluids through the veins and arteries of the animal frame.

The wants of the mind are less readily satisfied than those of the body, and exert a more powerful influence upon our happiness; to supply these, the authors of France, England, Italy, and Germany, are employed, and we receive their pro-

* Revue Encyclopedique. October, 1824.

ductions yet moist from the presses of London, Paris, Milan, and Leipsic.

And above all, if I may without profanity so express myself, the extension of science and the arts among us is preparing the way for the triumphs of revealed religion, while their general diffusion appears to be one of the most important means employed by the Deity to effect the accomplishment of the sublime predictions of the gospel.

ART. IX. *An Essay on the Doctrine of Contracts, being an Inquiry how Contracts are affected in Law and Morals, by concealment, error, or inadequate price.* By GULIAN C. VERPLANCK. New-York, Charles Wiley. 8vo. pp. 234.

THIS work is the production of a gentleman, who though educated to the bar, has, we believe, of late years, chiefly directed his attention to studies of a different character. With a mind well imbued with the theory of the common law, he has had leisure and inclination not only to compare it with other codes, but to examine it with reference to those principles of expediency and morals which should be the foundation of all law. We have no doubt that an individual thus circumstanced, and of such pursuits, is more competent than a mere lawyer, however eminent, to point out the errors and defects in an existing system. The world has seen Mansfield and Romilly, and others like them ; but they are very rare. It is next to impossible to be a good lawyer, in full practice ; and to be any thing else—the mind of such a man is necessarily contracted within the circle in which he moves. His business is to sustain the claim of this client, and the defence of that, by the laws and usages as they now exist, and not to speculate upon any possible improvement which might be introduced into the administration of justice. Knowledge is power, and skill and dexterity acquired by long practice, are power also ; and very few are desirous to introduce changes which will destroy or diminish the advantages which it has cost them much time and labour to acquire. The lawyer is, perhaps, less exempt from the prejudices of education and habit than the physician ; and scarcely more so than the theologian. His fame and his fortune depend on his success in the practice of the law as it is, and not on speculations as to what it should be. Napoleon, therefore, did wisely, when he called to his aid in the formation of that code, which is in truth (as he thought it was) his highest glory, not only men versed in the study and practice of the

civil law, but men whose views had been extended, and their powers improved in a larger sphere of action, and who, in different situations, had been conversant with the various details of life. Jurisprudence is a science (if it can be called a science) which has not advanced in an equal progress with the other great departments of human knowledge. It is, however, becoming daily more and more the subject of attention ; and we hail this interposition of Mr. Verplanck, not only as a favourable omen, but as a step taken in the course of improvement.

Mr. Verplanck has prudently confined his essay to the subjects stated in his title. The great object of the work is, to examine the propriety and justice of the maxim which the common law applies to sales, and most other contracts, "*caveat emptor*"—let the buyer beware.

"The seller of personal property is, by his act of sale, considered in law as warranting that he has a right to sell, and that the title is good ; but beyond this, in all ordinary transactions of buying and selling, the maxim of *Caveat Emptor* is fully established. No matter how defective may be the article sold, for which the full market price of a good commodity has been paid ; no matter how much its value may be inferior to its cost ; though the wine bought as good, may be sour ; though the horse paid for at the highest rate may be foundered ; if no fraud or intentional falsehood have been used, the buyer has no remedy. If he cannot rely upon his own judgment in the matter, or upon the good faith of the vendor, it is his business to ask for an express warranty. If he omits this, he takes the risk upon himself.

"It is a corollary from this position, that even erroneous representations or descriptions of the quality of the commodity, if made ignorantly,—or to speak more accurately as to the practical operation of the rule, if the buyer cannot prove that they were wilfully false,—impose no obligation upon the seller that the goods correspond with this description. Nay, further, it has repeatedly been adjudged that even a description of the nature and kind of the thing sold has no effect. So that when certain wood which was bought at a high price under the description of a valuable dye-wood much prized in commerce and the arts, turned out to be but logs of a common and wholly different species, fit only for fuel—and when certain cotton goods, described as being of a well known fabric of one part of India, were found after the sale to be of a wholly different kind, size, and quality, and manufactured in another quarter of the east—both these were adjudged to be valid and well executed sales."—pp. 29. 31.

The author proceeds to point out at considerable length, and with much clearness, other principles of the common law which are inconsistent with this favourite maxim of *caveat emptor*. We select the following, not as giving the whole of his argument and illustration on this subject, but as a sample of it. The contracts of a mechanic or artisan are construed on different principles.

"He who undertakes, for a certain sum of money, to build a ship, or a house, or to make a coat, or to bind a book, is held bound to do his work in a reasonable and workmanlike manner, so that it may have no gross unfitness for the purposes to which it is designed. If the house falls down of itself, or the coat is not wearable, the mechanic loses his claim for the compensation agreed upon; because, say the judges, if there has been no beneficial service, there should be no pay. There has been the greatest uncertainty, it is true, and much positive contradiction as to the legal mode of enforcing this rule. It is doubtful whether the proving that the work was done in a slight and insufficient manner is a good defence against the demands of the workman, or whether the employer can only resort to a separate or cross action for damages. But on the main point it is settled, that where a person is employed to do or perform some particular work or business for hire, the law implies that the person so engaged, not only undertakes to do the work, &c. but also to use all due diligence, attention and skill, in the execution thereof; if he does not, he is liable to the buyer for the amount of damages he may sustain. Thus, though there is no implied warranty of good workmanship imposed on the seller of the finished article, there is upon the mechanic who makes it.

"If I order a pair of boots, at the usual price of well-made, substantial boots, and my shoemaker makes me a pair evidently inferior in workmanship and durability, I can compel him to make a proper deduction in his charge, or, according to circumstances, refuse to take them. If I buy the same pair ready made out of the shop of the same man, so he used no false assertion, I must be content with my bad bargain.

"This is on a small scale We may take another example from the noblest of all manufactures, that of ships.

"A merchant makes an agreement for the building of a ship. The builder, from negligence, (we put all dishonesty out of the question,) executes his contract very badly, with respect to the mechanical part. Here the employer was not wholly obliged to rely upon the builder, for it was possible for him to have examined the work himself as it advanced, and objected to obvious defects; still the builder is liable for the consequences of his ignorance or carelessness. Not so if he builds and sells on his own account. The law then calls him no longer a workman, but a vendor, and under that name, if he sells the same ship at the same price, in good faith, (which he may well do, as we are supposing a case of defects from negligence, or reliance on some under agent,) he is no longer answerable for the faults which he does not positively know or warrant against.

"Let us now see how far the analogy of these principles and decisions has been preserved under different external relations, in other titles of the law.

"Our law of insurance, every one knows, is of modern growth. Although the practice of marine insurance had been long in use among merchants, and many of its rules had been fixed by the wise ordinances of the sovereigns, or, the learned labours of the jurists of the continent of Europe; it was not until the time of Lord Mansfield that it formed any part of the regular studies of the English lawyer. The liberal learning, and powerful mind of Mansfield, in the course of his long and brilliant career, laid the broad and solid foundations of a system, to which succeeding judges, in Europe and America, have done little more than to fill up and enlarge. Almost every case which came before him presented a

new question, with respect to which, the books of the common law could furnish no binding precedent. Thus, in his decisions he was left free to follow the authorities, or to be guided by the reasonings of the foreign authors; or else to make the judgments of the law correspond with the actual practice of intelligent merchants, and with those universal usages, founded partly in convenience, and partly in natural equity, which might be considered as the common commercial and maritime law of the civilized world.

"Hence it is, that, though there may be no positive contradiction, there is but little analogy between the law of insurance and the more anciently settled parts of the English law of contracts.

"In every contract of insurance, the law prescribes to each party, not simply strict integrity, but unreserved frankness and candour. The insured being the party from whom, in most cases, the underwriter obtains the special facts upon which the calculation of the risk is settled, every step of his conduct is watched by the courts with a jealous eye. Every fact within his knowledge, regarding which ignorance or mistake might possibly induce the underwriter to compute his risk upon an incorrect basis, or to enter into the contract on less favourable terms than he would otherwise have insisted upon, is considered in law as a *material* fact, and misrepresentation or suppression of it avoids the policy. So rigid is this doctrine enforced, that we find the reports full of such *dicta* as these. "This policy was affected by misrepresentation arising from the plain-"tiff's agent. Now, whether this happened by fraud or negligence it "makes no difference, for in either case the policy is void." This is said by Lord Mansfield, in a formal opinion, in which his associates on the bench concur."—pp. 34—38.

The circumstance that the law of insurance, being of recent introduction into English jurisprudence, is governed by principles of a more enlightened policy, and a sounder morality, than pervade the older branches of the law, goes far to show that the common law has not that happy facility in adapting itself to the new relations, and enlarged knowledge of the community, for which it is so much extolled by its admirers. On the contrary, the maxim of the law is "*stare decisis*," to change nothing which has once been settled. When, as in the case of insurance, an entire new subject is introduced, the judges, if they happen to be men of general knowledge, and large minds, feeling themselves free from the fetters of direct authority, apply to this new subject the rules which wisdom and justice dictate, but they dare go no further. They dare not apply the same reasoning and the same principles to other cases, which have been the subjects of previous decisions. On the contrary, so strong is the force of system, and such the veneration for ancient authority, that there is a constant tendency to repress the inroads which common sense, and the usages of society founded upon it, are constantly struggling to introduce. An instance of this may be gathered from the present author.

"The uniformity of the law of sales was a little disturbed, about the middle of the last century, by an opinion which, having been silently introduced by the customs of trade, was supported by respectable authority, and sometimes entertained by the courts. It was held that a *fair price*, or a price at the usual market value of such a commodity, implied a warranty of its soundness; because, it was said, that in the contract of sale, no man could be expected to part with his money without an adequate compensation. But soon after, a series of very marked decisions, during the most enlightened and liberal period of the English bench, restored the rule of the common law as it stood in the days of Fitzherbert and Croke. This has not only been deliberately recognised as law by the Supreme Court of New-York, but carried by them to its greatest extent, in a long and uniform train of decisions. It has besides been at different times confirmed and acknowledged by almost all the courts of the United States, which allow the authority of the common law. The only exception which I know, is that of the very able and learned bench of South Carolina, who have adopted the rule, that a sound price warrants a sound commodity."—pp. 28, 29.

We cannot omit this opportunity to express our dissent from a doctrine which we have often seen vaguely stated, but which has lately been formally brought forward, and elaborately explained, and supported in a work for which we profess the highest respect, and whose previous opinions upon this subject, we had understood to be more liberal and accurate, than those which appear to be entertained by the writer of the article in question. We allude to the essay, entitled English Common Law Reports, in the last October number of the North American Review. We are told that "a *code* of laws is like a coat "of mail, which, however perfectly made, can admit of but few "movements, and can fit but one person, and that but for a "short period; while the common law is an elastic garment, "which adapts itself to every size, and every variety of mo-"tion;" and this position or figure, is illustrated by the decisions respecting the examination of witnesses: and the writer correctly states, that the mode of attestation has, by the courts of common law, been varied, so as to adapt it to the religious belief of the witness—a Catholic swearing in one mode, a Jew in another, and a Mahometan in a third, each in the manner which is thought most agreeable to his own faith and usages, and therefore, to impress the greatest obligation on his conscience. And the writer concludes the illustration, by gravely stating, "that a *code* or a statute prescribing the forms of oaths in judicial proceedings, *would have been inflexible*." If the code were formed by those who excessively venerated the common law, and were little acquainted with any other system, we cannot answer what it might be; but if it were formed by such a man as Edward Livingston, or by any persons who in the

present age would probably be deputed to perform such a task, it would *not* impose an unvarying form in which all oaths or attestations should be taken ; but it would direct the judge to take into consideration the country and religion of the witness, and to compel him to deliver his evidence under such oath or other assurance of veracity as should be deemed most efficacious to elicit the truth. In the particular case supposed, therefore, neither the code nor the common law would have any advantage over the other ; each would pursue the same course. But to consider the subject in a larger point of view, the truth is, that the common law is *not*, as this and other eulogists have represented it, accommodating, flexible, or (to use an expression adopted by its admirers) *malleable*, excepting only in the cases and to the extent where it is either silent, vague, uncertain, or contradictory, and therefore, accurately speaking, *no law at all*. To this extent, the common law is accommodating, flexible, and "malleable," but no further. On the contrary, it is a remarkable feature in this system, that the precedents set, and the maxims established in the days of darkness and ignorance, are narrowly and pertinaciously adhered to in after times, when the enlarged interests and increased intelligence of society require them to be modified and extended.

Before Mansfield's time, the law was silent in relation to insurance, then scarcely known. Lord Mansfield, therefore, and not the common law, adopted a just and liberal system on that subject; but has not Mr. Verplanck very fully shown, that though the principle requiring fair disclosure, and good faith, in regard to insurance, is just as applicable to any other contract, yet that it has not been so applied? and in relation to all other subjects, the decisions are in direct accordance with former precedents, and in as direct contradiction to the principles, policy, and spirit of the law regulating insurance; and so true is this, that, as Mr. Verplanck has shown in the passage above cited, when public opinion had silently introduced a decided improvement in the law of sales, it was repressed and abolished, the moment it came under the direct judicial cognizance of the courts. This undeserved eulogy has been so frequently applied to the common law, in a manner so specious, and from such high authority, that we intend, on some future occasion, (should leisure serve,) to attempt a formal refutation of it. For the present, we must content ourselves with a few brief illustrations, taken without selection, from the mass which must constantly occur to every one familiar with English law books. In ancient times, when the art of writing was rare,

instruments were usually attested by seals. The law was built on this state of things, and the only distinction between contracts were those attested by seals, and those resting solely in *oral* testimony. As England became civilized, people learned to write, and to commit their agreements to writing; and no man but a common lawyer can see any reason why a contract, attested and proved by a man's signature, should not be as much entitled to credit as if attested by hand and seal. But the law said, not so; it repeated its former language, that there were but two kinds of contracts, one under seal, and the other not under seal, and that simple writing, without wax or wafer, was *not* under seal. Volumes would not contain the cases which have arisen, and in which injustice has been done, from this single instance of the rigidity of the law. The sealed contract is of the "*higher*" order, and no evidence not under seal can be adduced against it. A contract is signed and sealed; it is subsequently varied or discharged, of which there is unquestionable evidence from letters or other writings which have passed between the parties; but an action is brought on the sealed covenant, and the defendant, in a court of law, must be condemned in damages, if he have not fully performed the original agreement, although the plaintiff has agreed to substitute another in its place, (probably more beneficial to him,) and this last has been entirely fulfilled. One partner can bind another by simple writing, but not by deed, that is, by an instrument under seal, and if he attempt to do so, the act, however fair and proper, and within the scope of his authority, is void. An attorney, with power to execute a deed for another, must do so in the name of his principal. If he sign John Doe, by his attorney Richard Roe, it is good—if *Richard Roe for John Doe*, it is void, or, at least, very doubtful. These *littlenesses* continue in the law, and trifles as they seem, they constantly occasion great perplexities. Again, we ask, did the common law *accommodate* itself to the great and essential improvement in commerce introduced by bills of exchange and promissory notes, or did Westminster Hall, after looking over its mouldering precedents of the dark ages, and finding that there was no such things in the good old times, declare them to be nullities; and were they not treated as nullities until the statute of Anne compelled the courts to respect them?

At the present moment, no small portion of the derangement which affects the commercial world is caused by the bigoted application of an old maxim, that *though a factor can sell he cannot pledge*. The courts had refused to obey the dictates of common sense and justice, expressed by the universal voice of the commercial part of the nation. A statute

was necessary to change this flexible and accommodating common law, but unfortunately (although enacted) it did not go into operation until after the crisis of the cotton speculation had arrived.

To show the accommodating genius of the common law, we extract, without alteration or comment, the marginal note of a case reported in 3 Maule & Selwyn, 298. decided by the Court of King's Bench in 1814. "Where plaintiffs consigned goods to their factors, who, not having funds to pay the freight and duties, agreed with the defendants that they should take charge of the consignment, pay the freight and duties, and sell the goods, and have one half the commission on such sale, and *defendants accordingly paid the freight and duties*, and received the goods, after which the factors became bankrupt, having before informed the defendants that the goods were the plaintiff's, but the defendants, notwithstanding, sold the goods. Held, that on trover by the plaintiffs, the defendants *had not a right to retain for the freight and duties, after deducting the balance due from the factors to the plaintiffs at the time of the bankruptcy.*"

Every branch of the common law relating to real estate, is saturated with instances to show its rigid and unbending spirit. In this age of freedom and commerce, it is little more than the representative of the feudal institutions of William the Norman. Infinite uncertainty and litigation have flowed from this source, and the evil is so great, that many of those who adhere to the common law in every other part of it, acknowledge the propriety of a code in relation to real property. The arbitrary forms of actions preserved from remote antiquity, and the inadequacy of the common law to accommodate its remedies to the varying circumstances of the case, or to do any thing but to compel the defendant to pay the plaintiff a given sum of money, would furnish ample materials for illustration, and we should delight to expatiate in this field, but our limits compel us to defer the indulgence of our inclination to a more fit opportunity.

Mr. Verplanck compares, at considerable length, and with great clearness, the difference between the civil law which is generally adopted on the continent of Europe, and the common law of England, which is adopted in this country. By the former, a seller is held to warrant against all defects or injuries, which are of a nature to render the thing sold unfit for the ordinary purposes for which it is employed in commerce or manufactures, or for the particular object for which it was known to be purchased. By our law, the buyer takes all risks. The civil law gives the purchaser the option to rescind the bargain.

or to retain the goods and receive the estimated difference in their value. If the seller knew the defects, he is also responsible in damages.

We strongly incline to agree with Mr. Verplanck, in the preference which he gives to the civil law in this particular. It coincides with the natural sentiments of equity ; when one party gives and the other receives the ordinary price for an article, and for which a similar article might be procured at the next shop, the understanding of both parties is, or ought to be, that the article is of the usual merchantable quality. If it be rotten or worthless, the tradesman is expected to receive it again and return the price ; and every fair dealer would readily assent to this. We think that policy as well as justice requires this course. When the defects are concealed, if the seller know them, he is clearly bound in conscience to disclose them. This is declared by the civil law, and would probably be so decided at the common law ; although, as Mr. Verplanck states, this is not fully settled, and is somewhat doubtful. It would seem to be a wiser policy, to impose on the seller of the commodity, (who is ordinarily a dealer in it,) the obligation to furnish a fair article if he have received a fair price. It is always an extremely difficult as well as odious task, to prove fraudulent concealment ; as the common law now stands, it affords an inducement to fraud. It is the interest of every dealer to get rid of his defective commodities as soon as possible ; for if he do so, and there is no evidence that he was acquainted with the defect, no recourse can be had against him. If he purchased the article as of an inferior quality, he makes a dishonest profit ; if otherwise, he shifts a loss from himself to another. On the other hand, if every vendor selling his wares as of ordinary quality, which would be proved by his having received the ordinary price, were held to warrant them as such, there could be little temptation to fraud ; and when it were committed, it would probably be traced back to its author.

With regard to the question, whether one party is bound to communicate to the other his private knowledge of any *extrinsic* circumstances affecting the price of the commodity, the question is certainly one of more difficulty. In the case put (p. 121.) of a director in an insurance company, few will incline to doubt the justice of the author's decision.

"I am a director and large stockholder of an insurance company. From my observation and experience in the concerns of the institution, I form an opinion that the business of insurance is overdone, and that the present rates of premium are not an average compensation for the whole

risks assumed, so that the profits of any particular company must depend on mere good fortune. With these impressions, I sell out my insurance stock to vest my funds elsewhere. Perhaps he who buys my stock, has far less knowledge of this subject than I have. But the facts on which I form my judgment are accessible to many, and others may deduce a very different inference from them. The buyer knows that there is a great difference among men in their management of their money concerns, and their knowledge of all that relates to it, and this, he has no reason to suppose may not also exist between him and me. Unless there is some special confidence between us, other than that arising from the mere sale, he has no right to presume that I will not use this difference to my best advantage; just as he will on his own side.

"But, if I had intelligence of distant losses, which have sunk half of our capital, and I and my brother directors conceal it until we have disposed of our own stock at the current rate, this is no longer a fair use of superior knowledge. Here the sale of stock, at what was its market rate before an event which must so materially and necessarily lessen its value, is an indirect assertion on my part that I know of no such event; while the purchase is made in consequence of the buyer's not knowing of such a loss himself, and his confidence in me, that I have no such secret knowledge.

"These two cases of the stock-dealer are extreme and marked cases. Between them, there are many shades which gradually soften into each other, and cannot well be described in any general rule. But refer them to the leading principle of the degree of confidence reposed and taken advantage of, and there is little difficulty in their solution."—pp. 121—123.

There are, however, other cases of more nicety. In the instance of the director of an insurance company, his situation as such gave him an advantage over other individuals, who, in dealing with him for the purchase of stock, would have a right to suppose that he did not act upon any secret intelligence not communicated to them. But the case of the New-Orleans tobacco, which is frequently alluded to in the course of the book, is somewhat different, and we are obliged to confess, that we have not yet been able to make up definitively our opinion, whether it ought or ought not to be subject to a different legal rule. That case was this: at the latter part of the late war, there was a large quantity of tobacco lying at New-Orleans, which was of little value in case of the continuance of war, but every body knew that its price would rise greatly in the event of peace. An individual who had, by design or accident, obtained early information of the conclusion of the preliminary articles for a treaty of peace, took advantage of this circumstance, and purchased a large quantity of tobacco from a neighbour who had not heard the intelligence. Mr. Verplanck would avoid this contract on account of the fraudulent concealment of the fact of peace by the purchaser. The Supreme Court of the Uni-

ted States supported it, in the case of Laidlaw v. Organ, 2 Wheaton, 195. Chief Justice Marshall, who delivered the opinion of the court, stated the rule to be, that the vendee was not bound to communicate intelligence of extraneous circumstances within his exclusive knowledge, which might influence the price of the commodity; and the chief justice hints at the reason, which is, perhaps, the only one which can be given, viz. that it would be difficult to circumscribe the opposite doctrine within proper limits, where the means of intelligence are equally accessible to all parties. We are not disposed to dispute the propriety of this decision, which is certainly conformable to the received maxims of the common law; and yet, in principle, it is but slightly distinguishable from the case where a person hearing that a particular ticket in a lottery has drawn a prize, purchases it from the holder as an undrawn ticket, or at least as a ticket whose fate is not ascertained. There are few persons who would consider such a transaction fair, and the courts have adjudged it fraudulent.

We would, with some hesitation, offer a conjecture for the solution of this difficulty. It appears to us, (and herein we agree with Mr. Verplanck,) that, independently of the established usages of society, it was unfair in the tobacco speculator to make the purchase without communicating the intelligence he possessed; but it also appears to us, that the practice of making mercantile speculations upon private intelligence, however it first crept in, is now so fully established, that it is considered a *fair game of skill;* and if such be the understanding of all parties, it is so. If a tacit compact of this kind do not exist in the mercantile world, how does it happen that a merchant, who, upon a sudden change of prices, of which he was not aware, makes an unfortunate sale or purchase, is mortified but not indignant; while a farmer, who had in like circumstances, sold his beef at half its value, would consider himself defrauded. At all events, there is much weight in the suggestion of the chief justice, that there would be great difficulty in circumscribing the limits of the opposite doctrine. It would open a troublesome investigation as to the fact of knowledge; and it would be difficult to decide on the degree of knowledge possessed by the contractor. Speculations of this kind are entered into, upon information varying in every degree from possibility to certainty, and from vague rumour to official intelligence.

The question concerning inadequacy of price, and whether it ought to be considered a just ground for rescinding a contract, is very fully considered by Mr. Verplanck. His opinions appear to us sound, and we are inclined to think that his view

of the subject is original ; at least, we have never seen it elsewhere so clearly stated or fully developed. The ancient civil law proceeded on the principle, that every fair contract was made upon the mutual understanding of the parties, that an equivalent was given and received for each, and of consequence, where the bargain was unequal, and one party did not receive an equivalent for what he parted with, the losing party had a right to insist that the contract should be annulled. In practice it was found impossible to enforce this doctrine to its theoretical extent. Courts of justice could not be troubled with the complaints of every man who had made a bad bargain ; but the principle was still retained, and applied to cases where the inequality of the contract was strikingly apparent ; and by the Napoleon code, sales of real estate may be rescinded whenever the price does not amount to five twelfths of the value ; and this, even although the vendor had expressly renounced the right to rescind the contract.

The common law never adopted this principle of the civil law, but held, that inadequacy of price (unless it were so gross as to be evidence of fraudulent imposition) was no ground to annul a contract. By an inconsistency, however, from which the law is not wholly exempt, the courts of equity frequently refused to enforce the specific performance of a contract, on the ground of its inequality.

Mr. Verplanck shows, with great clearness, that there is not, in strictness, any such thing as adequacy of price, equality or inequality of compensation. A fair bargain does not, in fact, proceed upon the notion of mutual equivalents. Each party intends to gain something, which, *to him*, is more valuable than that which he parts with. If a farmer sell to a manufacturing capitalist a few acres of land comprising a *water privilege*, at a hundred dollars the acre, each would probably make an excellent bargain ; the manufacturer certainly if his business succeed, and the farmer also, because the money is worth more than the land for cultivation. The principle is very fully exemplified by Mr. Verplanck. It is evident, that with regard to articles of luxury or fancy, or which, from particular circumstances, are strongly desired by individuals, though not much in demand for general use, there can be no such thing as adequacy of price. The article is worth just what it can be sold for—ten dollars, or a hundred thousand pounds. The same principle, in fact, applies to staple articles, which form the basis of frequent traffic. The poet understood the true doctrine when he asked—

"What is the worth of any thing,
But so much money as 'twill bring?"

The difference is, that in regard to staple articles which are produced and consumed in great quantities, the principles of demand and supply which regulate all prices, operate with more regularity; in regard to them there is what is called a market price, and Mr. Verplanck justly concludes, that a material variance from that price affords a presumption of fraud or unfairness, which ought to annul the contract, unless particular circumstances can be shown, to prove that the transaction was in truth a fair one. If a baker ask and receive from a stranger two shillings for a loaf of bread, when he would sell the same loaf to a customer for one shilling, and the stranger might obtain a similar one elsewhere at that price, this is a manifest fraud, and the simple fact of the excess of price, without any other evidence, proves it such, and such frauds ought to be corrected by law.

Every part of this essay bears evidence that its author is a liberal minded man, who has thought for himself, without an excessive regard to what men of great authority have thought and said before him, and who gives his thoughts to the public, because he believes them valuable. To furnish a proof of this to our readers, we are tempted to swell this article by an extract from a passage in that book which the writer terms a digression, though it is hardly such.

"If the positive regulations are few and simple, and drawn from the actual usages of society, and in conformity with our modes of thoughts and habits of business, they soon become well known; not certainly to all—but to all who have much occasion to use them. They then enter silently into all negotiations, they make a real as well as a technical part of them, and thus positive law and natural justice coincide.

"The law-merchant of the modern civilized world, as to negotiable paper, affords an admirable example of this. Among millions of daily transactions, there but now and then occurs an instance where the parties were not sufficiently aware of their legal rights and responsibilities, and where the courts by applying the rule of law would not in fact execute the true intentions and undertakings of the maker, acceptor, or endorser.

"But if a little of the artificial reasoning and technical subtilities to the common law doctrine of real estate, had been at an early period introduced into this branch of the law-merchant—and it would have needed nothing but a little ingenuity, and the sanction of one or two venerable names to have done it—the negotiation of a bill of exchange would have become as mysterious and technical an affair as a deed of trusts and settlements; no unprofessional man could have told what his precise engagements and responsibilities were; while courts, in innumerable instances, would cease to administer justice, and would afford protection to fraud.

" Thus we come to the broad conclusion, that the law can never justly and wisely vary from the rule of private honesty, unless when the necessity of public good requires it, and then so far, and no farther, than that necessity demands. Great men have told us that it is of special little consequence what the law is, provided it be certain. Its provisions, say they, become known, and men govern themselves accordingly. This is not true.

" No matter how certain and precise the law may be, if in its intention it be a capricious and useless departure from the rule which unaided common sense would prescribe to an intelligent individual ; or if in aiming at a reasonable and justifiable ultimate object, it uses as the means, regulations abhorrent to the usages or even to the prejudices of the people, or unnecessarily formal, technical, and remote from the reason of common life, then the law never becomes known to those whose affairs it regulates.

" The crafty and knavish do know it, and they use it for their own ends. The simple and the ignorant are injured, and can find no redress. The contrast between technical sense and common sense becomes harassing and perplexing to all. There is one rule of honesty with our baker and butcher, and another in the stock exchange, the horse-market, and the courts. The law loses public confidence, and its ministers their just title to respect. The courts of justice are crowded and oppressed with a mass of litigation, from questions which in a simpler jurisprudence would never have arisen. Fraud often triumphs over honesty ; but the better sense and the better feeling of mankind cannot always be perverted, and in hard and extreme cases, judges sometimes, and juries oftener, will bend or break the law to their own irresistible notions of equity. Thus finally vanishes that very certainty, which is so boldly lauded as an adequate substitute for justice.

" Every unnecessary deviation in law from what is just in morals, is unjust. Yet such is the force of early prejudice, that great jurists, who have been able and eloquent in inculcating the natural supremacy of equity and reason, over positive rules and irrational customs, and who, while they have evinced a profound knowledge of the philosophy of jurisprudence, have been most skilful in its practical application, have conceded that legal systems without better foundation than precedent and accident, may be as useful as any, though less pleasing to the student, and less beautiful in the scholar's eye.

" ' If law,' says Sir William Jones, ' be a science, and deserves that sublime name, it must be founded in principle, and claim an exalted rank in the empire of reason. But if it be merely an unconnected series of decisions, its use may remain, though its dignity be lessened.'

" The first position is worthy of the noble spirit and sound intellect of this wise and high-principled lawyer. But if the law of any nation be ' merely an unconnected series of decisions,' its use does not, and cannot remain It ceases to be the remedy of the injured, and the shield of the weak. To the ignorant it becomes a snare, but a weapon to the wrongdoer.

" Lord Mansfield has termed Socrates ' the great lawyer of antiquity ; since,' said he, ' the principles of all law are founded in philosophy.' The philosophy which Socrates taught, and where Mansfield sought for the principles of jurisprudence, was that of common sense and moral rea-

son. Nor can the law fulfil its true uses, if it rests upon any other basis. Place it upon any other foundation, and what is it? A system whose language, reasons, and distinctions, are totally dark and mysterious to all but those whose daily business it is to study them,—very imperfectly comprehended by the most of these; natural and beautiful to none but a few antiquarian rabbis. All its doctrines, axioms, maxims, and adages, become malleable to the caprice of the bench. They are flexible in the hand of the judge upon whom public opinion is no check, and whose reasoning is unintelligible to all but the bar."—pp. 169—173.

We are tempted to state an instance which fell within our recent observation, of a case which will tend to show the remote and unexpected mischiefs which arise, from the introduction into jurisprudence of arbitrary, senseless, and unnecessary forms. When these exist, their origin will always be found to be remote; the reason has passed away, but the forms remain. About the time of the Norman conquest, (probably,) some person who had lost goods which another had found and refused to deliver, applied to a court of justice for a proper writ to obtain redress in such a case. The clerk of the court devised a writ suitable to that case, wherein the plaintiff alleged that he had lost, and the defendant had found, (trouvé) the property in question. This answered very well for that case; but this form having been once devised and used, was not to be laid aside, but to be applied to all other cases, whether similar or not. The "flexibility" or "accommodating principle" of the law is shown, not, as one unskilled in legal mystery would think it should be, in *accommodating the remedy to the case, but in forcing the case to correspond to the pre-existing remedy.* Accordingly the next man who came to the clerk's office, to obtain a writ for the purpose of recovering compensation for property in the possession of another which he claimed, was forced to allege that he lost, and his adversary found it, although in point of fact there was no losing or finding in the case; and from that day to this, in cases of disputed personal property, a party always may, and generally must allege, that it has been lost and found, or in other words, *the form of action is trover.*

Again; the law abstractly, and without any regard to the real merits of the case, considers certain forms of action as "sounding in *tort*," (to use its own elegant phraseology,) that is, that where an action of such a form can be sustained, the defendant is guilty of a *tort*, or wrong; and a distinction is made between this and a case of debt or contract. Now, in trover, the allegation is, that the defendant found the plaintiff's goods, and knowing them to be such, converted them to his own use; and this allegation is legally proved if it be shown that

the property belongs to the plaintiff, and is withheld by the defendant, whether innocently or not. The case alluded to, and by no means a rare one, is this: a gentleman purchased a vessel at a fair price, which he paid. It appeared, that several years before the same vessel had been sold under judicial process, (but irregularly;) several subsequent sales intervened, but the former owner came to claim his property. He brought an action of trover, and recovered. The defendant had been unfortunate in business; had assigned all his property to assignees duly appointed, and had been discharged agreeably to the provisions of an insolvent law. But the law only provided, that the insolvent should be discharged from his *contracts* or *debts*, and not from the *torts* or wrongs he had committed, and as, *according to law*, he was a "*tort feasor*," [wrong doer,] judgment must be rendered against him, notwithstanding his discharge.

We had intended to have laid before our readers an analysis of this work, but we find, after proceeding so far, that we have accomplished very little in that way, and it is now too late. This is the less necessary, as it has been done by the author, and we cannot better close this article than by stating the results to which Mr. Verplanck has arrived, as given by himself.

"The doctrine of Contracts may be thus summed up:

"A CONTRACT is an agreement, by which one or more persons undertake, with one or more others, to do or not to do a certain thing.

"A contract is commutative, or one of *reciprocal interest*, when one of the parties undertakes to do or to give any thing which is regarded by both as the inducement, or motive, for the giving or doing some other thing by the other party.

"When the inducement on either side, or both, consists of the chance of gain or loss for either, depending upon the occurrence of an uncertain event, this is a *contract of hazard*.

"The terms of most contracts of reciprocal interest are regulated with reference to value in exchange, which, when estimated in money, is called *Price*.

"The *Market Price* of any thing is the ordinary price at which things of the same kind, and fit for the same uses, sell or would sell at the same time and place, among those whose demand causes their value in exchange or in sale, and those by whom they are commonly supplied.

"Things wholly peculiar, or which are not susceptible of a regular supply, in proportion to the demand for them, have no market price, but their price depends solely on the wishes and means of the buyer and seller.

"A price agreed upon honestly, with full knowledge of all material facts, is always a fair price between the parties, however excessive or inadequate it may appear to others.

"But: If in any contract or sale the price of the thing sold or done, or to be done, be much greater or less than the market price at which things

of the same kind or quality sell or would sell, such variation will afford a legal presumption of a fraud or error in the contract or sale.

"Such a presumption is not conclusive, but is open to refutation, by proving the true reason and inducement for such derviation from the market price, and showing that the agreement did not proceed from fraud or error.

"GOOD FAITH is essential to the obligation of contracts: he who commits a fraud in making a bargain, leaves the other party at liberty to set aside the agreement, if it be not executed; or to claim to be restored, as near as may be, to the situation he was in before the bargain; provided always, that the fraud is of such a nature as to make it evident, that without it, the contract would not have been made at all, or not on such terms.

"Fraud may be either *direct* fraud, or the fraud of *unfair advantage.*

"Direct fraud in contracts comprehends every falsehood, art, trick or manœuvre, practised by the one party to mislead or deceive the other concerning the subject or terms of the contract.

"It partakes of the nature of fraud in contracts, for either party to take an advantage of the other on any point, where it was presumed by the one party, and understood to be so presumed by the other, that no advantage would be taken; and where no such advantage could be taken, except through the means of the trust thus reposed.

"This trust may be directly reposed; as in the appointment of an agent, or trustee, or guardian: and the use of such confidence by an agent or trustee, to his principal's or trustor's injury and his own benefit, is fraudulent, being a breach of direct confidence.

"When in any contract or sale advantage is taken by *concealment* of knowledge as to any of those *material* facts concerning the terms or the subject of the contract, which necessarily and of course enter into all calculations of price among those whose demand and supply, and estimation of value, fix the market price of similar things; this concealment is a breach of implied confidence, and therefore unfair.

"These *material* facts, necessarily entering into all calculations of market price, may relate either to circumstances *extrinsic*, or to those *intrinsic* to the subject of the contract.

"Extrinsic circumstances, materially affecting the terms of a contract, are those which influence the market price of such things, or their exchangeable value.

"Intrinsic circumstances material to the terms of a contract, are such as relate to those *qualities* of the subject of the contract, which in similar things fit them for their ordinary use, and create the demand of those whose use or desire for such things give them their value in sales or exchange.

Circumstances *material* in their nature, are not material in degree, unless they are such, as if known, would so affect the value of the thing sold or done, in the general estimation of those whose use or estimation fixes the market price of similar things, as to make the price of the actual subject of the contract vary materially from that of other things of the same nature or use.

"Concealment of such circumstances, whether intrinsic or extrinsic, if they are material in nature and degree, vitiates the contract, whenever the thing is sold, or contracted for, with reference to its ordinary uses.

"When a special purpose for the thing bought or agreed for, is intended by one party, and known to be so intended by the other, it is a breach of implied confidence, to take an advantage by concealment of any such fact, as, if known, would affect the worth or value of the thing in the estimation of any reasonable man having the same object; and with regard to which, the agreement alone proves that it was presumed no advantage would be taken.

"It is perfectly justifiable in bargains to use superior sagacity as to probabilities, or to apply greater skill and more accurate information, as to those facts which do not necessarily enter into the common calculations of price; and concerning which no presumption or confidence, express or implied, can reasonably be entertained, that if either party possessed superior knowledge, he would not use it.

"Wherever, either by the known usage of trade, or by express words, notice is given that the sale or agreement is made at all risks, and without recourse in case of error or loss; neither party is answerable except for positive and direct fraud.

"The responsibility of making good injuries caused by direct fraud, can never be disclaimed in any way

"Mutual error as to the subject of the contract, does not of course vitiate the contract; But,—

"A contract or sale is not duly executed, when the thing done or delivered varies materially, in kind or quality, from the kind or quality expressed or understood between the parties.

"These are implied from the custom of trade and the price paid; which if settled with reference to market price, raises the presumption that it was understood as a condition of the contract, that the subject of it had the usual qualities, and was fit for the uses which create the market demand for such things.

"The kind or quality are also implied from the avowed object of the purchaser, which, if known to the other party, raises the presumption that the subject of the contract was understood to possess the usual qualities which fit similar things for the intended use.

"In all contracts of reciprocal interest, there is an implied warranty that the agreement will be duly executed; unless there be some stipulation, notice, or known usage, that the contract is at all risks, except that of positive fraud.

"The seller, whether of goods, of services, or of the uses of things, impliedly warrants against all secret defects of what he sells, which make the thing useless for the object for which it is avowedly intended, or for the common purposes and uses of similar things; or which so lessen those uses that the buyer would not have purchased, or only at a lower rate, if he had known such defects.

"This warranty includes defects unknown to the seller, as well as those known to him.

"This implied warranty does not extend to defects known to the buyer.

"If defects are apparent on inspection, the law must presume that they were known to the buyer; but such presumption may be refuted by positive contrary evidence.

"If the defects were unknown to the seller, and the sale in all respects honest, he may in the first instance replace the thing sold by others which will correspond with the true intent and meaning of the bargain.

"If this cannot be done, he is bound either to return the price, receive

back his goods or other things sold, or to pay the difference of value, and interest thereon, if any; but no farther.

"The object being to restore the parties as nearly as may be to their former situation before the bargain, if this be done, the manner is not important; but if the bargain cannot be executed according to its true intent, the wisest legal policy, as a general rule, is unquestionably that of the Roman and French law, which in cases of honest error as to intrinsic defects, give the *option* of rescinding the bargain, or of recovering the difference of value, to the buyer.

"If the seller knew these intrinsic secret defects, he is bound, moreover, to make good all damages resulting from the error of the injured party.

"The same responsibility attaches to any party to a contract, who gains an advantage therein by fraud of any sort.

"In every contract of sale the seller impliedly warrants that title or right of property which he purports to sell.

"If there be no description or representation of the right or kind of property, the sale impliedly includes a warranty of full and absolute property; subject to this exception:—

"When the buyer knows, from the understood custom of trade, or the law, or in any other way, that he buys not the absolute property, but the seller's right or claim.

"Mutual mistake as to title, without warranty, is a ground to rescind a sale at the option of the buyer.

"If the seller did not know the defects of his title, he is answerable only to make good the price paid him; if he knew them, the sale is then fraudulent; and he is answerable moreover for all damages or losses resulting therefrom.

"Mutual mistake or mutual ignorance, of extrinsic circumstances material to the terms of a contract, do not in strict right affect the contract, or impose any liability.

"In cases of mutual ignorance or error, there is no implied warranty as to such qualities of the subject of the contract, as are not ascertainable as matters of fact, but depend upon individual taste and opinion, concerning which the parties severally rely upon their own judgment.

"Where, from the nature of the subject, or of the transaction, the value of the things sold appears to have been estimated as *contingent*, (there being no fraud or concealment,) there is no implied warranty as to those facts on which the contingency depends. This is exemplified in the discounting of uncurrent bank notes, the sale of negotiable paper without endorsement, and frequently in *bona fide* sales of stock, at the current rate, though above its true monied value. Here the risk is assumed, impliedly, by the buyer, while the seller is answerable only for the fraud, or unfair concealment.

"Such are the general principles and rules of honest dealing in bargains, and the execution of them. To make them perfectly fit for legal direction, they require more precision and circumstantiality, and many subordinate rules under each head. Besides this, in order to be readily comprehended and easily applied, they would also need the addition of examples or of adjudged cases.

"Otherwise they are the rules of strict honesty, and of wise legal policy on this head, and need no other limitations, than are common to all such principles,—those arising from the necessity of general rules of evidence, or those imposed by obvious public policy."—pp. 224—234.

We do not mean to say that some of the minor propositions in this work are not doubtful, or even erroneous, but we consider the general course of his reasoning to be clear, and the results justly deduced; and this is no slight praise, when we can add, that it is also in a great degree *original*. We hope and believe, that as it eminently deserves, it will receive attention, and that not from lawyers only, but from intelligent merchants, legislators, and, in short, from every class in the community which wishes to advance its highest political interest, which is, undoubtedly, that of jurisprudence. Nothing is more delightful or more animating to the lovers of truth and excellence, than to observe the progress of liberal and just ideas on this all-important subject. This generation cannot pass away without many improvements, and we may venture to predict, that our immediate successors will see the advancement of the law from a *trade* to a SCIENCE.

Since writing the above remarks, we have heard of a recent legal decision, which, in our opinion, is very apposite to prove the justice of Mr. Verplanck's argument, in regard to the doctrine *caveat emptor*. It is the case of *Osgood* v. *Lewis*, which recently arose in Baltimore, and was decided by the Supreme Court of Maryland.

It was an action to recover damages on a sale of sperm oil, described in a bill of parcels, and sold, as *winter pressed sperm oil*; it proved to be summer strained oil. The court (Judge Archer dissenting) decided, that the bill of parcels was not a warranty, and that, to recover, it was necessary to prove that the defendant sold the oil for winter strained, knowing it not to be so. Judge Hansen, in delivering the opinion of the court, declared the preference the court was disposed to accord to the civil law, and its wish to consider such an affirmation as implying a warranty; but that, however desirable it was that the law should be what it ought to be, yet it was not the province of the court to make it so. It was their duty to expound the law as it is, and after a research into the British authorities, the court had determined to rely on the authority of Chancellor Kent.

Now, the occurrence of such a case as this, in the commercial city of Baltimore, and the litigation which grew out of it, is conclusive proof that the law is not known to those who ought to know it. A law wrongly settled, never is fully settled. The ordinary notions of good sense and equity, which influence men in their transactions of business, are constantly leading to the infringement of the law; and the same sentiments are not always without their effects upon the bench. In the above case, if the cause had been tried before a jury, Judge Archer presiding, the plaintiff would have prevailed. The frank confession of the judges is, we think the highest authority in favour of Mr. Verplanck's argument.

ART. XI.—*A Letter to the Lord Chancellor on the Necessity and Practicability of forming a Code of the Laws of England; to which is annexed, the New Bankrupt Law; arranged in the Method of Domat's Civil Law, and in a style suited to the humblest capacity; proposed to be adopted as the Statute Law of the Realm. By* CROFTON UNIACKE, Esq. *of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law; and late Judge of the Vice-Admiralty Court of the Province of Nova Scotia.* London. 1825.

THE work, the title of which we have given above, is among the numerous signs of the spirit of legal improvement which is now widely diffused. This spirit is no longer confined to speculative philosophers, but has extended itself to the cabinets and councils of nations. A general impression seems to prevail, that the system of civil and criminal legislation, and of the procedure by which justice is administered, in most civilized countries, is far behind the improved condition of the age, and the increasing demands which public opinion makes upon the rulers of the states. Every other branch of knowledge is in a state of progressive and rapid improvement. Why, then, should the science of jurisprudence, which is so vitally important to the happiness of society, be abandoned to the careless and occasional efforts of reform produced by its more glaring defects, instead of being brought to the test of an enlightened philosophy, and systematically examined with a view to its revision and adaptation to the new order of things which has been produced by the improvement of other branches of knowledge? The words of Mr. Canning, in his speech at Bristol, which are quoted by the author of this letter to Lord Eldon, appear to us to be pregnant with meaning. "It would appear," says that eminent statesman, speaking of the public affairs of Great Britain, "that the WHOLE MACHINE of society has received an *accelerating impulse*, and that this country is beginning a course of prosperity which shall *exceed all that has gone before*, as much as the present exceeds all past expectations." This is not only true of England, but of other civilized countries, excepting, perhaps, the benighted regions of Austria and Russia. In every other European nation, and the countries colonized by Europe, an active discussion is going on upon the laws of trade, and those by which justice is administered. The respective merit of written codes, and of common law—of different systems of punishment for crimes—of the organization of judicial tribunals, and their forms of procedure—of the trial by jury, and written and oral evidence—

of the division of courts of justice into distinct departments of law and equity—all these subjects are investigated, not only by learned and ingenious individuals in private stations, but by those who have power to enforce their conclusions with the authority of the state. On the continent of Europe, these discussions have been continued ever since the establishment of the codes of Napoleon. It is a great mistake, to consider those codes as the first attempt in modern times to establish a complete system of written law. Long before the name of that extraordinary man was heard of, the customary law of the different provinces of France had been reduced to a written text; and the beautiful ordinances of Chancellor D'Aguesseau had nearly completed a system of statutory legislation, which served as materials for the new civil code of France. More deliberate examination has again detected numerous imperfections in this code. But, with all its errors, it is still retained as the law, not only of France, but of Holland and Italy. In Holland it is about to undergo a revision and modification. In some of the cantons of Switzerland, it has already passed through that process. Throughout Germany, the most animated discussions, on subjects connected with the science of legislation, are going on. The history of the Roman law is diligently studied, and its principles are not only taught, as formerly, in the learned universities of that intellectual country, but are widely diffused in periodical journals, which keep alive a taste for this branch of study.

As respects the controversy about common and written law, it appears to us, that it is neither necessary nor desirable to abolish the common law upon the establishment of a code. The common law, or some other supplementary rule, must always exist as *a system of jurisprudence*, after the most successful attempt to establish a complete digest of statute law. In those countries of Europe where written codes have been long established, the Roman law still retains its authority; as a system of jurisprudence, as a supplementary rule to be resorted to, both for the interpretation of the code, and to supply its defects. In this view, it is expressively called by the French lawyers, *raison écrite*. The same office must probably always be performed by the common law of England, in those countries which have been governed by that law, even after the establishment of civil and criminal codes. Nor does this concession diminish the weight of the arguments in favour of such codes. No man will urge it as a reason against the establishment of written constitutions of government, that both in our national and our state constitutions we are obliged frequently to resort to the common law, not only to ascertain the import

of terms used in them, but to interpret their text, and to supply its unavoidable defects and omissions. This will much less frequently happen in a code of private jurisprudence; which must, necessarily, be very diffuse, and comprehend many of those minute details which are omitted in drawing up a constitution of government. But still, we think, the necessity of occasionally resorting to this system of *raison écrite* cannot be entirely avoided.

To return from this digression. The bankrupt law of England, the first foundations of which were laid as early as the reign of Henry VIII. and of Elizabeth, had grown up, by the gradual accumulation of subsequent statutes amending these, and by a long series of judicial interpretations engrafted upon the original text, to become one of the most complex titles of English jurisprudence. Indeed, the study of this head of the law formed almost a distinct department of the profession. The determination of cases in bankruptcy, even with the assistance of the commissioners, formed one of the most laborious portions of the Lord Chancellor's duties. Voluminous treatises had been written upon it. But all these efforts of the legislature, of the eminent men who have held the great seal, and of the learned individuals who have practised in bankruptcy and written upon the subject, have only served to swell this indigested mass of materials to a monstrous pile, in the labyrinth of which there was no clue to guide the wanderer. In this state of things, the subject was taken up by parliament at its last session; several of the old statutes were repealed, many of their provisions consolidated, some of the judicial interpretations of their original text incorporated into the law, and the whole digested into one act. Here then we have an example, in one very important, overgrown, and complicated title of the law, of the practicability of what has been gravely pronounced by some very wise persons, *impossible*. That it is not a perfect system, or a perfect digest of an imperfect system, may be readily admitted. The first may be hereafter shown by further experience, and the last Mr. Uniacke has shown in the little work before us. But that it is the combined result of the commercial and legal experience of England for the last three hundred years, and a convenient consolidation of all the provisions on the subject, which that long experience has determined it wise to retain, into one statute, of no very great length, a bare inspection of the law will render quite manifest. But this is not all. This bankrupt code was framed, not by Jeremy Bentham—not by any private speculative philosopher, or by any public assembly of levellers, aiming at a radical reform of existing institutions—it was framed by the imperial parliament of Great Britain—by

king, lords, and commons:—and the most remarkable circumstance about this remarkable law, and which characterizes it as forming an æra in British legislation, is the preamble which is prefixed to it: "Whereas it is expedient to amend the laws relating to bankrupts, AND TO SIMPLIFY THE LANGUAGE THEREOF, AND TO CONSOLIDATE THE SAME, SO AMENDED AND SIMPLIFIED, IN ONE ACT. and to make other provisions respecting bankrupts, be it enacted," &c. It then goes on, and in one fell swoop, repeals no less than twenty-one acts of parliaments, beginning with the venerable statute of the 34 and 35 of King Henry VIII. c. 4, and ending with the statute of the 5th of his present majesty, c. 98. sparing neither old age nor youth—neither the wisdom of the Eighth Harry nor that of the Fourth George. It then proceeds, with what must appear to some a merciless hand, (but to us it seems too sparing,) to lop off the useless verbosity, and dark and antiquated phraseology, of the enactments it thinks fit to retain; and to supply the place of those it entirely extirpates, by new and more wholesome provisions, reducing the whole into something like order and symmetry.

Notwithstanding these improvements in the phraseology of the new act, (which was passed on the 2d May, and went into operation on the 2d of September last,) Mr. Uniacke thinks it is susceptible of still further improvement both in style and arrangement, and for that purpose has *translated* the act, (as he expresses it,) so as to render its language more plain and intelligible, and reduce its size at least one third. This *translation* was published some time since by Mr. Lang, in the *New-York Gazette*, and therefore we shall not trouble our readers with an analysis of it, which we had intended to prepare and lay before them.

We may be allowed, however, to express our wish, that as the subject of a bankrupt code seems to be taken up in earnest by congress, due attention may be paid to the revision of the phraseology of the bills which have been heretofore presented on the subject, and that we may avail ourselves of the substantive alterations which have been made in the English bankrupt laws by this new statute, so far as they shall appear to be adapted to our peculiar circumstances. It seems indeed extraordinary that one of the most important powers with which congress is invested by the national constitution, should have remained so long unexecuted. We can hardly conceive it possible that a great commercial country can long exist, in any tolerable order, without a bankrupt code. That this should be uniform throughout the nation, in a country divided into so many jurisdictions as this is, seems to be self-evident. It is true, that the English bankrupt laws do not extend to Scotland and

Ireland, or to the British colonies; but we are to remember, that they extend to all persons resident in England, whether natives or aliens; and that by far the greater part of the commerce of the British empire centres, and is carried on, in England, where its active agents reside, and are liable to be affected by the bankrupt laws. But in this country, divided, as it is, into twenty-four different jurisdictions, each having its peculiar system for the collection of debts and the relief of insolvent debtors, great confusion and inconvenience has already arisen, and must at last become inextricable, without the establishment of uniform laws on this interesting subject. The commercial credit of the country, both at home and abroad, is injured by it to a degree which it is impossible to estimate. We are very sensible of the difficulties of adjusting a system of bankrupt laws to the various wants, and habits, and local institutions of our wide spread empire; but we do not believe that these difficulties are insuperable. Any uniform system, however imperfect, would be preferable to the present chaos of state regulation—of insolvent laws, and attachment laws, and execution laws, constantly fluctuating with the changing policy of the different states, operating in the most unjust and partial manner upon foreign creditors, and confining the unfortunate debtor to the limits of the local jurisdiction within which he has obtained his discharge. We are, however, satisfied, that the American legal mind, availing itself of the lights of experience in other countries, is competent to frame a bankrupt code, which shall be superior to any other that has yet been devised, both in simplicity and efficacy. If there be any doubt of the practicability of this, it must arise, not from the want of skill in our legislators, but from the state of morals and of manners which has grown up under the present lax and confused system, and which will not endure those decisive remedies which alone can be efficacious. They will at least have the consolation of Solon, if they cannot give their countrymen the best possible laws, they will give them the best which they are capable of receiving.

ART. XII.—*The Atlantic Souvenir; a Christmas and New-Year's Offering.* 1826. Philadelphia. H. C. Carey & I. Lea.

WHEN this journal was first started, under a different title, strong doubts were entertained, by many judicious and reflecting individuals, as to the meaning of its name; and perhaps, if its godfathers had been perfectly ingenuous, they would have found it no easy matter to have satisfied the laudable curiosity and rational septicism of those who quarrelled with the mysterious appellation. If there be any who yet feel uneasy about this matter, we have now an opportunity of referring them for information to those who stood sponsors for the beautiful work before us, to the title of which, for obvious reasons, we make no objections; although

we fear it may affect dangerously some weak nerves, and sound to their nice ears like the "Herculean Balsam," whilome advertised as a grand specific in this city.

However this may be, we have reason to be proud of this little volume, both for matter and manner, as a specimen of American manufacture, and as it will bear comparison, without prejudice, with any of the similar publications of the English press. For the elegance and beauty of its typographical execution, we have not seen its rival in any book printed in this country.

It has been supplied with its literary materials entirely by native writers; and at least half its contents is from the pens of authors in this city. "The Eve of St. John," "A Tale of Mystery," and the "Spanish Girl of the Cordilleras," from the same prolific pen, will be read with universal pleasure; and although the author's reputation has been long established, we know not but it may be even enhanced by the perusal of these stories, in the opinions of those who have often smiled with him in the sallies of his native humour, or who have confessed the strength of his caustic talent, when he has employed the power of his satire against the libellers of our country. The first of these tales, (and, in our opinion, the best, both for plot and execution,) is the narration of the persecution and murder of a young Greek girl and her lover, by a Turkish tyrant. Whether it be founded on any particular facts we know not; but too many similar recorded instances of remorseless and abominable oppression in the annals of Mahometan sway, give to this well told fiction the pathos and the eloquence of truth. The "Tale of Mystery," which we have also relished exceedingly, is an account of the melancholy and gentlemanlike deportment and demise of one Mr. Jacob Stump, who died, as his fathers before him had done, "without a disease." Whether the cause of this premature dissolution of Jacob and his ancestors, is intended to be discoverable in the necessity of their wearing, for constant penance and mortification, their unfortunate surname, or to whatever source this family disease might be traced, we think the parents of the hero showed great good sense and taste, in not tacking to his inevitable cognomen any preposterous heathen appellation. They found him a Stump; and they christened him plain Jacob. Had they made him carry on the back of his familiar title, the tremendous heroic weight of Artaxerxes, or Agamemnon, he would surely have sunk into an earlier, a more untimely grave. The scene of this story is at home, and the fidelity of its descriptive parts will be at once recognised by all who have travelled in steam-boats, or made the fashionable summer excursion. Were we, at this season of festivity, in a cynic vein, we should object to the "Spanish Girl of the Cordilleras," on account of the poverty of its plot. The story, however, such as it is, is told pleasantly and gracefully.

"The Catholic Iroquois," by the author of Redwood, relates the martyrdom of an Indian girl, who, after having been educated in the Christian faith, and married to a young Frenchman, is carried away by her savage father and his tribe, after the destruction of her husband, and the settlement in which they dwelt, and devoted to the funeral pyre, on her refusal to embrace the faith of her kindred, and a husband from among their people. We have rarely met with a more deeply interesting and pathetic narrative, of equal length, than this. The writer has evinced all her usual ability in the introduction, in which the legend is naturally and happily introduced; in the local descriptions of scenery; in portraying the prominent characters, and in the management of the incidents.

We have only one remark to make, by way of suggestion, and perhaps it is hypercritical. We had thought, that the notion of human sacrifice, or the dedication of human victims to any particular god, as belonging to the customs of our Aborigines, had been disproved, and exploded. The martyrdom of the Indian girl, might have taken place with as much propriety, and been made equally effective, without the introduction of this questionable superstition. Be this as it may, every reader of feeling will do homage to the genius of the author, in perusing this brief story. The characters of the good priest, and of the two Indian sisters, the one of whom had devoted herself to the solitude of the cloister, while the other could not break the tendrils of natural feeling which bound her to this world, with its hopes, and fears, and sympathies, are drawn in a manner not unworthy of M'Kenzie. The conclusion approaches to the sublime.

Of the two remaining tales in this volume, the first, which is called, "A Revolutionary Story," has no particular merit, except that it is written in good English. Dr. Johnson has very justly remarked, that it requires no great stretch of ingenuity to dispose of the characters in a fable, by killing them all off. There are so many different ways of departing this life, other than by the regular course of professional assistance, that one has no difficulty in cutting to pieces the tangled knot of his own tying, by strewing the stage, as in Tom Thumb, or Bombastes Furioso, with the murdered victims of his sanguinary but uninventive imagination. A tale of disastrous love, where the parties to the suit are got rid of by a simple suggestion on the record, that one died of a broken heart, and the other for grief at the loss, requires much poetical embellishment, or unusual pathos in the narration, to save it from the oblivion which has past over so many doleful compositions of a like lugubrious, but unoriginal character.

"The Waldstetten" is of a different order, though founded on the same basis, of an unfortunate attachment, and terminating as unhappily, in the death of the lovers. The scene, and time of its action, are laid in the heroic days of Switzerland; and the main incident is the voluntary self-devotion of Arnold de Winkelreid. The author appears to have made himself at home, among the lakes and mountains, which he paints with no vulgar pencil; and his fiction, in connexion with the historical matter introduced, is managed with much skill and effect.

The descriptive sketches of Paris, from "Pere la Chaise," "Scenes on the St. Lawrence," "Naples" and "Athens," accompanying the respective engravings, are written with much grace, and with great purity of style. Of the poetry, generally, we must speak in more qualified phraseology. It is all very respectable, and some of it is very pretty; but its prevailing character is that of mediocrity. "The Dream," is decidedly flat. The writer of the "Legend of the Forest," is undoubtedly a poet; and there is much poetry in this production. We think, however, that he has taken too great liberties with the superstitions of our Aborigines, and interwoven with them too much of eastern mythology, producing a texture sometimes inconsistent and inappropriate.

Upon the whole, the volume is highly creditable to the talents of our native writers, and the laudable enterprise of the publishers Its plan is extremely well calculated to elicit the powers of genius, by preserving in a more enduring form its fugitive efforts. It is a beautiful and appropriate present for the season; and we hope the extent of its sale will correspond with its external and intrinsic merits.

THE

ATHENEUM MAGAZINE.

JANUARY, 1826.

STORIES OF A COCK AND BULL.

THE BEAU'S TALE.—HISTORY OF COUNT R———.

I was born, began the count, in the province of New-York, of one of the first families in it. By the first, I mean, one of the first that came over from Holland. My great ancestor accompanied Hendrick Hudson on the voyage, which ended in the discovery of the New-Netherlands, but in what capacity I cannot tell; and from his not having exercised any particular functions on board, I think I may fairly conclude he was a gentleman passenger. In addition to this presumptive claim to distinction, it is on record that he killed the first bear that ever fell by the hands of a white man in the province. When it is considered how large a portion of the great families abroad, derive their origin and distinction from the performance of exploits not half so innocent, not to say as useful, as that of my ancestor, I think I have fairly made out my pedigree, and shall insist upon it no farther. If any other proofs of honourable descent were necessary, they might be found in the utter obscurity that shrouds the memory of his forefathers. This, in itself, is equal to a certificate from the herald's office, since, in my opinion, the best possible proof of the antiquity of a family, is the total oblivion of its founder. If it has subsisted long enough for him to be entirely forgotten, his descendants may make him out a hero or demi-god, and let him perform as many impossibilities as they please.

I have it from the best authority, that my ancestor was a very clever fellow, who belonged to that class of persons who make their fortunes by making themselves either useful or agreeable to great men. Their sole study is human nature, not in books, but the great volume of the world; and the most valuable portion of their learning consists in the science, which is sometimes dignified with the honourable appellation of *toad eating*. When you know as much of the world as I do, you will discover that this class of persons have more to do in the government of mankind than you imagine. My ancestor was an adept in this science, and continued in favour with a succession of govern-

ors, who never agreed in any one thing, but in considering him a very clever fellow, and rewarding him accordingly. Most of the thriving gentlemen of this class, of the present day, have borrowed a leaf out of his book beyond doubt. At that time, the governors exercised the prerogative of giving away as much land as they pleased; and whole manors were sometimes bestowed by their excellencies on their favourites, particularly after dinner. We have it in the family, that my great ancestor once received a patent for a number of city lots, for delighting his Excellency Governor Van Twiller with a jovial Dutch song; and a grant of a square mile in King's county, for a joke upon the Yankees of Connecticut river, which caused Governor Kieft to laugh himself into great good humour, and saved those arch interlopers from a furious proclamation. It was something to be a governor, and it was worth while to make one's self agreeable to a governor, in those times. No wonder people were so much more agreeable and witty than at present. Now, forsooth, all that a governor can do, is to give away a few petty offices, not worth the tenth part of the moiety of a good song, or a tolerable joke; and his only prerogative consists in the privilege of a goose at Christmas, to be shot at by every rogue in the parish, not for sixpence, but for nothing.

My great ancestor, by his meritorious services, was rewarded with grant upon grant, so that, in a little time, he had a right to an immense property, which, at that time, was worth little or nothing. However, as he paid no taxes, the possession did not actually ruin him. He died full of years, full of lands, and full of glory; for it is related, that the governor of that day followed the body to the grave, and ordered Captain Paulus Kryff to fire minute guns all the while. True it is, that the powder, being intended for trafficking with the Indians, was so bad, that the swivel only went off twice during the whole ceremony. His excellency was wroth, and called the contractor to account; but he justified himself triumphantly by hinting, that as the Indians undoubtedly intended to use the powder in shooting Christians, both piety and humanity inculcated the necessity of cheating the villains. I am thus particular in dwelling on the history of my great great ancestor, because, as he was the only one of the name, except myself, that ever shed a ray of glory as far into the world as the end of his nose, I felt bound in honour to make the most of him, for the credit of the family. I shall, therefore, bury them all quietly in the old Dutch church-yard, leaving it to the writers of epitaphs to tell as many lies about them as they please, and proceed directly to my own particular biography.

The first decided indication of character I exhibited, was a taste for finery, which, I believe, I can trace to a pink silk bonnet, bedecked with a whole rose bush, and a worked muslin cloak lined with lilac, which my godmother presented me with on my second birthday. From that time I cried for every piece of finery I saw; and as I was never, thank Heaven, denied any thing, because I had beautiful curly hair, and my parents were rich enough to afford it, I was the envy of all the little masters, misses, their papas, mamas, rulers, aunts, godfathers and godmothers, and so completely the admiration of my teachers, that they never taught me any thing. As I grew up, my taste for dress grew with, or rather outgrew me; so that, when quite a boy, I dressed like a full grown beau, and was considered quite a premature genius. Alas! my young friends, it was some distinction at that time to be finely dressed, for then it was the living of a gentleman. But this vicious republicanism has levelled every thing to the dust. Kings are now but men; and a fine coat does not even indicate that a man is rich enough to pay for it. It is now quite impossible to tell a gentleman by his dress, so that he is actually obliged to depend on his manners, education, and acquirements, for that distinction. No wonder we have so few gentlemen now-a-days.

For my part, I despised learning, as only fit for schoolmasters, and such poor creatures as could not afford to dress like gentlemen. From sixteen to twenty, my principal pleasure and employment was, walking through William-street, at that time the great emporium, admiring the finery of the milliners' shops, and making myself acquainted with the fashions. There were no French milliners then to clap monstrocities on the heads of our poor girls at pleasure, so that they might look like little poles, with great pigeon houses on the top of them. A bonnet that would fill a whole bow window was unknown; and if a fine lady wanted to cut a figure, instead of a great hat, she put on a great petticoat, and sailed into a ball room like the sign of the globe with a woman's head sticking out of the middle. These were the times! when a lady was absolutely impregnable; and a gallant was obliged to be content with cooing around her like a cock pigeon, without ever getting within the magic circle.

But to return; I became a mighty frequenter of milliners' shops, and from admiring the finery, came at last to admire the little milliners who dispensed it. Indeed, I became so alarmingly smitten with a little Dutch vender of straw bonnets, with blue eyes, white teeth, and a right plump round figure, that

my parents became seriously uneasy lest I should commit the enormous sin of matrimony with her. They determined to send me upon the *grand tour* to preserve my virtue, and keep me out of mischief. The idea of the grand tour was sublime —it overwhelmed me with anticipations of I did not know what, but of something inexpressible, inconceivable, and inevitably exquisite. The whole city talked of the matter, and Dominie Frelinghuysen called upon my mother to warn her seriously of the dangers of the seas. But she defied the dominie, and all his works, like a heroine; the danger of being swallowed up by the waves was nothing to the danger of being swallowed up by the little Dutch milliner. I turned my back upon her most heroically; and the jade, such is the inconstancy of the sex, instead of pining away, and breaking her heart, a little while after, married the degenerate son of a soap-boiler.

I pass over the tears of my parents, and the sage admonitions of my good mother, who, though she spoiled me, I shall die loving with all my heart. She furnished me with a store of pickles, sweetmeats, and cakes, to solace me on the voyage, and cautioned me over and over again, against the opera dancers, the Dutch milliners, and the lions in the tower; the good dominie gave me a little Heidelberg catechism, with the blessing of his worthy old heart; and thus spiritually and temporally fortified, we set sail one fine May morning. As we glided smoothly down the bay, the beauties of the scene and the season, for the first time, struck upon my heart, and I could not help asking of myself, where, in the wide world, I should meet with any thing so gloriously lovely. Feelings of this sort were not apt to come over me often, and for that reason I remember them on account of their novelty.

But, whatever may be the end, the beginning of the grand tour, taking one's departure from New-York, is to be remembered with utter abhorrence. Before I lost sight of the land, I was overtaken by that sickness which is the more intolerable, because it seldom, if ever, puts a man out of his misery, by putting an end to him. My whole system partook of the rolling of the ship, and a grand vouleversement took place, like that which your modern geologists suppose to have produced the wrecks, fragments, and out-of-place matters, which, but for this, would puzzle people that nothing else can puzzle I believe. I exclaimed against the sea, and all that in it is. I cast forth from my mouth the *grand tour*, and the little Dutch milliner; and when I beheld the captain, and his more experienced passengers, taking their meals with symptoms of insufferable satisfaction, I consigned eating to the infernal gods, and came near

to wishing every mouthful would be their last. In short, this sea-sickness did what Dominie Frelinghuysen's exhortations could never do; it made me despise this world, and the things of this world—for the time being. I remember I offered a jack tar all my pickles and sweetmeats, the very thought of which I abhorred, if he would only do me the favour to throw me overboard. But he only laughed in my face, and muttered something about "fresh water sailors."

In a few days, however, my troubles passed away, and I became more reconciled to my situation. I recovered my appetite, and that is always sure to put a man in good humour, provided he has wherewithal to satisfy it. And here I cannot but notice a strange thing that happened to me. The sea-sickness entirely cured me of my passion for the little milliner, from which I am inclined to believe, that love is a bodily rather than a mental disease, and a sea voyage the best possible specific for its cure. I landed in good time in England. People may talk of the bluff, abrupt, ill-humoured sincerity of the English, but for my part I was not troubled much with it. I had plenty of money, which I was not niggard of, and money will make even John Bull polite. Nobody ever told me any ill-natured truths; and I cannot sufficiently impress it on the inexperience of my young friends, that this exemption from unpleasant remarks, or insufferable friendly admonitions, is one of the greatest blessings accompanying the possession of wealth. The poor are actually condemned to the misery of hearing the truth, while it is the happy prerogative of the rich to listen for ever to the tuneful lullaby of delicious flattery. I finished my tour in England, without, so far as I recollect, hearing a single uncivil remark at my expense; but then I paid for it, I confess. Yet, after all, when we come to the point, what is superfluous wealth good for, except to purchase bows, civil speeches, and the admiration of the vulgar?

From England I crossed the channel to France, where I found every thing much cheaper than in England, especially civility. Here I purchased the title of "my lord," of the landlord, for a douceur of five franks. I had heard that titles were very cheap in Europe, but had no idea they could be purchased for so little. There is nothing in England but London, and nothing in France but Paris—so to Paris I went, without looking either to the right or the left all the way. In truth, I took an anodyne, that I might sleep through the journey, and thus avoid the tedium of such a long ride. Being entirely ignorant of the French language, I hired a valet, to talk, think, decide, and act for me on all occasions. He rid me of a vast deal of

trouble, but then I paid well for it. But what of that? Where is the use of being rich, if one can't do every thing, but eat, drink, and be merry—by proxy.

At Paris I ran a glorious race. By dint of spending money like a prince, I actually excited the notice of some of the *beau monde*, and in passing one of the princes of the blood one day, in my splendid equipage, I had the superior delight of hearing him ask who I was. I wrote an account of this to my mother, and my bills were duly honoured. Alas! my dear young friends, it was something to be a prince in those times. His very glance conferred immortality; and the qualifications of a black leg, or a debauchee, became ennobled in his person. But times are changed; and such are the abject notions of quality now prevailing, I am told even in France, that the first prince of the blood is actually obliged to depend for some portion of his respectability, upon the low-born pretension of merit and virtue.

I figured at the Palais Royal; I figured at the opera; and I figured at court, where I was introduced by a blunder. My valet, either through ignorance or design, had given me out as a descendant of Columbus, instead merely of a companion of Hendrick Hudson. The descendant of the discoverer of a new world was condescendingly considered as fit to be received at the court of the grand monarque of the old, and I was at the summit of human glory. But as ill luck would have it, the mistake was discovered, and the descendant of the companion of the immortal Hudson was prohibited the court. Nay, I was told, that the sanctuary was considered as polluted—the audience chamber was actually new painted and gilded—the stair-case leading to the king's apartments replaced by new steps of marble, and a general purification took place, at an expense of half a million of livres. I was not worth putting in the bastile, or I should certainly have been sent there.

After this, it was impossible to breathe or have a being at Paris, and acordingly I went to Italy, where I fell in love with the Italian opera; and what was worse, with an Italian opera dancer, who became deeply smitten with me the moment she was properly certified that I could afford to be in love—with an Italian opera dancer. She was as beautiful as an angel, at least she appeared so on the stage; and she took care that I should never see her off of it, but in the dim obscurity, so dear to the votaries of love, and so especially dear to those bashful signoras who have seen their best days. Now it was that my money flew like chaff before the wind, and that my bills poured so fast upon the old gentleman, that had it not been for my re-

ception at the court of Versailles, and my intimacy with a prince of the blood, bearing the bend sinister on his escutcheon, who borrowed my money, of all which I had duly certified my treasurer, I believe he would have irretrievably dishonoured me by letting them be protested. He even went so far as to hint, that I might better have married the little Dutch milliner.

In process of time, it came to his ears, through the medium of some malignant persons, who envied my honours, that I had been ignominiously dismissed the court of France, for not being the descendant of Christopher Columbus. This news, coming on the back of some heavy drafts, quite put him out of patience, and he peremptorily ordered me home. By the same vessel came a letter from my mother, telling me to stay if I wished, and she would take care to settle the matter of my disobedience. Indeed, if she had not written, I should have staid, for it is not likely that a boy who has had his way all his life, will commence being an obedient son just as he becomes a man. But, unluckily, my good mother, not long afterwards, learned that I was desperately in love with an Italian opera dancer. At that time, it is impossible to conceive the intense horror with which our worthy respectable Dutch dames contemplated these capering signoras. All that was ever written, sung, or dreamed; all that reality or imagination had ever presented or conjured up, concerning the arts, the wiles, and the wickedness of women, was embodied of their ideas of these light-footed dames. My mother was convinced that I would be stripped of all I had, then abandoned, and then assassinated by a whiskered bravo with a stiletto a yard long. She happened to be right in her first and second, and her third might have come to pass in time.

She first wrote to beseech me, and afterwards commanded me, on her blessing, to come home. But I had been too well instructed, to obey her. She then adopted the infallible system of cutting off my supplies, which sorely put me to my trumps. But I had established a credit with my banker, who continued to supply me with money until the return of a bill which I had drawn to reimburse him. From that time, both the banker's coffers, and the heart of my signora, were hermetically sealed against me. It is, indeed, amazing to see how her love changed, as by miracle, the moment she discovered the fatal truth. That very day she wrote me a letter full of tender reproaches for having deceived her unsuspecting innocence with an idea of my immense riches, and that night, instead of appearing with a decent sobriety due to the occasion, danced a

furious *ruffa*, which shot a German prince right through the heart.

I was now poor and forsaken; my spirit and purse both exhausted, and concluded, rather than starve, or live upon the supplies of what they called soup, daily doled out at the monasteries to idle scoundrels, to come to terms with my unnatural father. Accordingly, I wrote him word, if he would forgive me, and pay my debts, I would forgive him, and run in debt no more. My mother thought the terms quite reasonable, and the treaty was carried into effect forthwith. I bade an everlasting adieu to Italy, whose tutelary power, from having once been a high, haughty, unconquerable Roman, is now metamorphosed into a voluptuous nymph, spending her soul in dying airs, and seducing motions: an angel without, a sensualist within.

On my return I took the city by storm. At that time, a young fellow that had made the grand tour, was looked upon here in the light in which the Musselman views a pious devotee that has just returned from a pilgrimage to Mecca. His manners were the standard of elegance—his opinions the umpires of taste—his attentions the hope of the belles, and his dress the despair of the beaux. But now, the times are sadly altered. They cross the Atlantic with as little ceremony or preparation as were used formerly in crossing the East river ferry; and people think no more of a grand tourist, than of a young fellow that has galloped round Lake's-tour on a hack horse. Blessed be my stars, which ordained that my youthful lot should be cast in an age when an embroidered waistcoat, and lace ruffles, made a gentleman, and the grand tour, a demigod.

I appeared in the *beau monde* of New-York in a blue coat of bird's-eye silk; a white satin waistcoat embroidered in silver; a pair of purple velvet breeches; diamond knee and shoe buckles, and silk stockings; which last, at that time, were enough to confer immortality. The next day, and, indeed, every day, and sometimes twice or thrice a day, like the cameleon, I changed my dress and my colour; for one of the last things I did previous to coming home, and I look upon it as one of the most important acts of my life, was to make arrangements with a fashionable tailor for a constant supply of suits made in the newest Paris cut. These were the days of my glory, and it was at this time that the title of count was bestowed upon me by the unanimous consent of my fellow citizens. You may smile at the assumption; but as the people are the undoubted sovereigns of this country, I look upon a title voluntarily bestowed by them, as being quite as legitimate, and

worthy of all acceptation, as if it were derived from the pleasure of a king, or came by actual inheritance. It would savour of vanity, were I to relate the triumphs I achieved in breaking off matches, setting the belles to pulling of caps, and driving the homespun beaux into utter annihilation, by the splendours of my embroidery and gold lace. At balls, nobody could get partners until I had made my selection; and if it so happened, that any one of the ladies had a previous engagement, she was sure to forget it if I asked her hand. In short, I was the envy of one sex, the admiration of the other, and came in for all the kisses in crossing kissing-bridges on sleighing parties.

Without vanity I may affirm, that I could have married the first heiress in the city, could I have brought my mind to it. But some how or other, it would seem, that the more a man sees of the world, the less he is inclined to marry. He is apt to acquire a habit of vagabondizing; a taste for living at hotels, and dining at ordinaries, entirely at war with the every-day monotony of the wedded state. So at least it was with me. I could not bear the idea of sinking into an uninteresting married man, and foregoing the delight of being universally admired. I made up my mind to play the butterfly through the vernal season, to laugh, chirp, dance, sing, and flutter from flower to flower, while the sun shone, taking it for granted that I could make my choice, throw the handkerchief, and marry whenever it suited my inclinations.

Accordingly, I sported my embroidery without mercy, at parties and public places, and for a while reigned supreme lord of fashion among the beau monde of my native city. But the empire of fashion is not like other empires; it is neither held for life, nor by hereditary succession. In a few years I found myself gradually declining from my supremacy, though I continued to keep up my vivacity astonishingly, and to impor the most fashionable dresses from Paris faster than ever. Still I could not help feeling the sceptre gradually declining from my grasp; the young ladies began to recollect their previous engagements when I asked them to dance; the young sprigs just grown up began to dub me an old bachelor; and, finally, there came out a new governor, with a young aid in a red coat, who gave me the *coup de grace*, and carried all before him.

But the mischief is, that neither bell nor beau that has enjoyed supremacy in the fashionable world long enough to become acquainted with the sweets of power, is apt to take warning in time, and retire gracefully from the field which can no longer be maintained, under the cover of matrimony. They flit about

like shadows amid the ruins of departed greatness, and at length wilfully shut their eyes to neglect and ridicule. I continued to hover around the scenes of my former glories, to compliment, to make love, and to be laughed at.

About this period I lost my parents, who died within a few weeks of each other. I was then arrived at the age of forty-five, a period in which our sensibilities are apt to be a little blunted. Yet, I can safely say, I regretted them sincerely, and that my regrets have every year acquired additional poignancy. On settling the affairs of the estate, it was found, that the landed property was much involved in consequence of the drafts I had made during my travels; the mighty tailors' bills I had incurred every year, and the various expenses I had indulged in while presiding over the empire of fashion. I was advised to dispose of one half to clear the other of debt, and fully intended to do it every morning of my life for several years. But, some how or other, the time taken up in dressing, paying visits, and other indispensable occupations of a man of fashion, consumed all my leisure, and my debts accumulated in a most inconvenient manner. The greasy rogues who had lent me money, began to foreclose, seize, and sell my city lots, one after another. I was regularly summoned in the name of John Doe and Richard Roe, or some such worthy persons, to put in my plea, and defend myself against these doughty champions, but I hated trouble, and for once in my life was wise enough to save myself from the expenses of the law, by quietly letting the law take its course.

In this way, I was, by degrees, stripped of my city lots, till not one was left to tell what had become of the others. I congratulated myself at being at length rid of the visits of these confounded Darby and Joans of the law, and one day bethought myself suddenly of making a visit to the mile square, which, as I have related, my ancestor received from Governor Kieft, for a good joke upon the Yankees. When I arrived there, I found that the best of this joke was, that those worthy persons, John Doe and Richard Roe, had been beforehand with me. They had got fast possession, by some means which I never took the trouble to investigate, and as I had heard possession was eleven points of the law, I felt no inclination to combat against such fearful odds. To conclude, my estate was gone, I had as many wants as ever, and nothing but my debts to supply them.

The world of fashion turned its back upon me, with that infallible instinct which never fails to detect the approaches of poverty. It is by the aid of this instinct, that people distinguish the person who wears a threadbare coat out of a con-

tempt of finery, from the poor creature who wears it because he can afford no better. It is this which enables them to discover in the unnapped hat, the soiled linen, and the look of subdued humility, the infallible symptoms of decay. It is this which inspires the tradesman to become suddenly hard pressed for money, and to be particularly attentive in bringing in his bill; and, finally, it is this which suggests to the catchpole, as he glances his eye upon the faded costume, the seducing idea of, ere long, clapping the unhallowed paw upon the threadbare shoulder. But I will do the world the justice to say, that it did not entirely neglect me. There were certain persons, to whom I owed money, who paid me particular attention, and either came or sent every morning, to inquire after my health, and to ask me for money. Some of my old friends came also, either to reproach me for not following their advice, or to favour me with more. Happy, indeed, is the man who is in debt, for he will have plenty of advice, and his creditors will certainly pray for his prosperity. It is also a proof of his respectability, for it is not every body that can arrive at the eminence of being trusted. Let no one, therefore, stigmatize the debtor, since the relation between debtor and creditor forms, as it were, the cement of society, which, without it, would dissolve of itself. For my part, I will do my creditors the justice to say, that they never turned their backs upon me, or neglected me in any manner whatever.

I continued to wear my embroidered waistcoats, to frequent the public walks, and to live a gentleman's life as usual. When I wanted money I borrowed it, as long as any body would trust me; and when I could borrow no longer, I ran in debt, and spunged upon my landlady. But all things must have an end; and though the patience of a debtor surpasses that of Job, that of his creditors is apt to wear out suddenly. I began to have an instinctive intimation in my own mind, that they would arrest me before long, and from that time put myself on the defensive. I never ventured out without carefully reconnoitering the street up and down, to see if any suspicious person was in sight; and whenever I turned a corner, took care to look abroad as far in every direction as possible. On Sundays, however, I came out in all my glory, strutted along the public walks, and turned up my nose at constables and creditors manfully. By degrees they contracted their lines of circumvallation, and blockaded me so closely, that I could only venture out in the dark nights, and on Sunday, the day open to us poor hunted deer. Perceiving this, my creditors combined together, and

made up a purse to pay one of the most expert man-catchers of the city for kidnapping me.

I now felt bound in honour to defend myself by putting in practice all those tactics which so naturally occur to us who have seen the world, on such occasions. The fellow was a stanch pointer, but he had an old fox to deal with. He assumed fifty disguises, but I always knew him by a sure instinct, which, after a while, never failed me in detecting the approach of a catchpole, as surely as some people do the presence of an invisible cat in a room. At billiard tables, coffee rooms, and other places which I sometimes ventured to visit, by taking advantage of a back door, it seemed that I could actually tell when he was coming before he came in sight, and was frequently prompted by this inward monitor to break a conversation abruptly, and dart out of the room, to the surprise of my companions, who wondered at my conduct, until it was explained by the appearance of the officer.

In this way I baffled the catchpole for a whole year; but fate ordained I should fall into his hands at last. One dark evening, apt for mystery, I received a note from an old flame of mine, complaining of my long absence, reproaching me for supposing that my misfortunes had forfeited her regard, and inviting me to meet her at eight o'clock at the house of a mutual friend. This was approaching me on the weak side of my intrenchments. Creditors, catchpoles, writs, and *stone jugs*, all vanished away, like mists at the dawn; the spirit of my better days awoke within me; I put on my best array, and without taking the precaution to slip out by the back way, sallied forth gay as a nightingale. The first step I took was in the arms of my faithful follower the catchpole, who, by virtue of authority from my old enemies, John Doe and Richard Roe, bore me to prison. Thus, like another Mark Antony, did I lose the world for love.

There are some men, with so little of the true spirit of resignation, that they resist with all their might, and use the most violent efforts to arrest their course, when they find themselves going down hill. But, for my part, I was too much of a philosopher for this. Whenever I found myself going, I let myself go at once, and got to the bottom as quickly as possible. People are continually breaking their bones by jumping out of a run-away carriage, while those who remain quietly within, and take their chance, escape shot free. In a little while I was as happy in jail, for aught I know, as I ever was out of it. My creditors allowed me my clothes, so that I enjoyed the blessing I valued above all others, that of dressing in an embroidered

suit. It is true, I had few to admire me, but this I did not much mind; I had a piece of a looking-glass, in which I admired myself; and am pretty certain I made a serious impression on the chambermaid that kept my room in order. My creditors were obliged to make me a weekly allowance, sufficient to furnish crackers and apples, and as I was never an epicure, I was perfectly satisfied, for I could sleep in peace, and bid John Doe and Richard Roe defiance.

But a man can never be at peace long in this world. The legislature took it into its head to disturb the repose of my retirement, by passing a law establishing prison limits, under pretence of humanity to the prisoners. It was intimated to me, that some of my old friends would be my securities, if I chose to quit the prison for the jail liberties. I declined with contempt this invidious offer, and sent them word I was not to be entrapped into the world again. My creditors, finding I had nothing left for them, and that my support in the prison was a dead loss to them, signed a release, and directed the sheriff to send me about my business. I told him I had no business; and would not stir an inch. My creditors had put me there against my will, and there they might keep me. They were obliged to turn me out, which they did in spite of my expostulations on the cruelty of thus setting me again adrift in the wide world.

Finding myself thus thrust from my peaceful asylum, I determined they should thrust me no farther, and resolutely confined myself to the limits allowed for debtors I insisted that it was against law and reason to push a man out of prison against his will, after having put him there without his leave; but as I had not money to bring a suit for this violent ejectment, I was obliged to submit to this monstrous infringement on the rights of a citizen. However, I was resolved they should make me the same allowance out of jail that they did in it, and I have ever since punctually received it, either from them, or from some one of my old friends; for I never thought it worth while to inquire whence it came. In addition to this, I regularly receive, as you know, from some unknown hand, twice a year, a present of fifty dollars; which, together with my other allowance, sets me quite above the world. Between ourselves, I suspect the hundred dollars comes from the little Dutch milliner, who married the soap boiler's son, and now rides in her coach. I flatter myself she still retains a partiality for my person; of which, however, my sense of honour prevents me from taking any undue advantage.

I am frequently solicited to return to that "illimitable void."

the world; but I would not exchange the sanctuary I now enjoy, from the persecutions of creditors, catchpoles, John Doe and Richard Roe, and the delightful conviction that here they cannot molest me, for the liberty of boundless space. If I return to the world, I shall run in debt to the tailor, of a certainty; and then the ghosts of sheriffs and officers would haunt my steps by day, my dreams by night. But here nobody will trust me—here no two-legged bloodhound carries his two-legged prey with an instinct that never fails, a perseverance that never tires—here there is nothing to hope, and nothing to fear; and here, as in the grave, "the wicked cease from troubling, and the weary are at rest."

HERO AND LEANDER.

(*From the German of Schiller.*)

See ye, where yon castles stand
Face to face on each far strand?
Gray they rise in ancient state,
Where the tide of Helle swells
Foaming through the Dardanelles,
Through the narrow rocky gate.
Hear ye, still, the wild surf dashing
Break upon the shore with might?
Asia it has cleft from Europe,
But it cannot love affright.

Love, whose arm no power restrains,
With his arrows, dipped in pains,
Hero and Leander wounds.
She is fair with Hebe's grace;
He, the foremost in the chase,
Through the forest lightly bounds.
Yet the feuds of angry parents
Still deny them open bliss;
And the sweet fruits of their passion
Grow near danger's deep abyss.

There, on Sestos' rocky tower,
Which with wild eternal power
Helle's waves still clothe in foam,
Sat the maid, and musing mourned;
Towards Abydos' coast she turned,

Towards her lover's distant home.
Ah, no bridge from yonder region
O'er the sea with safe arch lay;
From the shore no vessel ventures,
Yet can love discern its way.

Love, with safely-warning thread,
From the labyrinth has led;
Love can make the timid dare,
Tame the beasts of wildest ire,
Bind the bulls, though breathing fire,
To the plough with diamond share.
E'en o'er Styx bold love hath ventured,
Where its ninefold circles flowed;
And with fearless arm the loved one
Raised from Pluto's dark abode.

Thus, the god, whose strong desire
E'en in floods preserves its fire,
Courage to Leander gave;
And when day's last beams grew dim,
Led by love, he dared to swim
O'er the Pontus' sombre wave.
With strong arm the stream dividing,
See, he toils the shore to gain,
Where, on highest turret burning,
Shines the beacon o'er the main.

And in safe affection's arm,
There the happy youth grew warm,
When the chilling course was o'er;
There he gains the guerdon high,
Reads his welcome in love's eye,
And is blest for all he bore:
Till his joys and blissful visions
At Aurora's coming flee;
Then he turns from love's soft bosom,
Plunging in the chilly sea.

And thus flew the thirtieth day,
Mid concealed delights away,
Swiftly for the happy pair,
Swift as marriage revelry,
Such a gods with envy see,
Gods forever young and fair.

Happiness ye ne'er have tasted,
Ye, who ne'er on danger's brink
Plucked the heavenly fruit, and feared not
In the gulf of death to sink.

What though, changing o'er the skies,
Hesper and Aurora rise?
Lovers see not autumn lower;
Though the leaf all withered falls,
And from northern ice-bound halls
Winter comes with sullen power.
Shorter grow the days and shorter,
But the darkness favours love,
And for longer bliss the thoughtless
Grateful thank the powers above.

In the scale that hangs in Heaven
Now the days and nights were even;
And the maid, with anxious eye,
Watched the coursers of the sun
Through the brilliant pathway run,
Till they sank beneath the sky.
As a pure transparent mirror
Lay the smooth still sea beneath;
And the plain of crystal moved not
With the zephyr's softest breath.

Gayly at the close of day
Bounding light, the dolphins play
On the water's silvery plain;
And in crowds of sombre gray,
From the deep in strange array,
Rise serenely Thetis' train.
Faithful lovers' secret nuptials
They and they alone may see,
But their lips are ever silent;
Such is Hecate's decree.

O'er smooth seas fair rose the night,
And the maid in still delight
Gazed, and spoke in flattering tone;
"Beauteous God! cans't thou deceive?
No! 'tis impious to believe
Thee a false and faithless one.

'Tis the race of man is faithless,
Cruel is a father's heart;
But in thee I trust; thou'rt gentle,
And true lovers would'st not part.

" Joylessly each lonely day
Passed for me immured away;
Life's sweet flower 'gan droop and bend:
But thou on thy waves dost bear,
Though nor bridge nor ship be there.
Safe to my embrace my friend.
Fathomless are thy still waters,
Fearfully thy billows swell;
But to love thou'lt deign to listen;
Thee the hero's arm can quell.

" Cold thy rapid streams may flow,
Yet on thee love bent his bow,
When the ram, that dared to sweep
High in air from Europe's shore,
Helle and her brother bore
Far above thy dangerous deep.
By her beauty thou wer't conquered,
As they soared aloft in air,
And the maiden to thy caverns
From the golden ram did'st bear.

" There the goddess dwells with thee
In the grots beneath the sea,
Lives and blooms thy deathless bride:
Oft thine anger she hath stayed,
Oft doth lend lorn love her aid,
Oft to port the seaman guide.
Beauteous Helle! lovely goddess!
Blest one! hear me as I pray;
Bring me safely my beloved
Through his wonted path to-day."

Darkness veils the sea and land;
From the tower at her command,
Lo! the kindled torches shine,
That high o'er the barren tide
Burn the wanderer's course to guide.
Giving love's appointed sign.

Now the sea, in darkness swelling,
Foams and menaces afar;
And the near approaching tempest
Shrouds the light of every star.

O'er the Hellespont's wide plain
Night descends, and streams of rain
Gush from every sweeping cloud;
Thunder peals; the wild wind raves;
Bursting from their rocky caves
Storms break loose and roar aloud.
In the troubled waste of waters
Hideous eddies hurl and hiss;
Like the opening jaws of Oreus
Widely yawns the sea's abyss.

Then she cried, "great Jove relent!
Calm the raging element;
Ah, what have I dared implore?
If the gods have heard my prayer,
If amidst the storm he dare
Plunge to gain the distant shore!
See, the strongest sea-birds gather,
And for refuge haste away;
E'en the ships that ride the tempest,
Fly to gain the sheltered bay.

And the fearless will not shun
Still to do what he hath done,
By his strong affection led;
This he swore by love's own oath,
And at parting pledged his troth;
He will venture, or he's dead.
Now, perchance, e'en now he's wrestling
With the wildness of the storm,
And the angry flood uplifted
Now entombs his noble form.

Faithless Pontus, thou did'st smile
Fair as mercy's self awhile;
Like a mirror smooth and pure;
Calmly spread thy waters lay,
But more surely to betray,
And within thy realms allure.

Now, when struggling with thy current,
Hope discerns no saving shore,
On the youth, whose heart could trust thee,
All thy horrors thou dost pour.

And the tempest louder yells;
High the mountain billow swells;
On the shore the breakers dash,
Beat the cliffs with mighty stroke;
Hark! the ships, whose ribs are oak,
Perish with a fearful crash.
And the storm hath quenched the beacon
Kindled by love's guiding hand;
Horror broods above the waters,
Horror rests upon the land.

She to Venus lifts her prayer;
"Bid the hurricane forbear;
Calm the waves, the strong winds hold."
In distress her hands she wrings,
Vows the winds rich offerings,
Bullocks decked with horns of gold.
All the goddesses of ocean,
All the gods, in heaven that dwell,
She invokes, the tempest's fury
With mild words of peace to quell.

Hear! the voice of sorrow calls;
Hear, and rise from thy green halls,
Thou, Leucothea, thrice blest!
Whom the seaman oft has found,
When the storms were gathering round,
Kind to rescue the distrest.
Lend, oh lend the sacred garment,
Woven by thy secret care;
Sent from thee that garment safely
Yet from death the youth may bear.

And the wild winds had repose;
Bright on heaven's far skirt uprose
Morning's steeds o'er hill and lea;
And the waters peaceful pour
In their ancient course once more:
Cheerly smile the land and sea.

Softly breaks the rippling billow
O'er the rocks that guard the strand;
And in playful circles swelling,
Bears a lifeless corse to land.

Yes! 'tis he; borne by the deep
Lifeless, still his word to keep;
At one glance her friend she knew:
But she uttered not her wo,
Not a tear was seen to flow,
Fixed her eye, and pale her hue.
Hopeless gazed she on the waters,
Hopeless raised to Heaven her head;
Then with lofty passion glowing,
Her pale cheek at once grew red.

"Powers severe! I own your might;
Sternly ye demand your right;
Fearful race, unmoved by prayer!
Soon my early course is run;
Long ere eve, has set my sun;
Yet, my day, though short was fair.
Living in thy temple, Venus,
I've thy happy priestess been;
And upon thine altar offered,
Gladly die for thee, great queen."

And with garments streaming wide,
Down the castle's lofty side,
Leaps the maiden to the wave;
Where the god his billows heaves,
He the hallowed pair receives,
And he is himself their grave.
And now, with his prey contented,
Smoothly on his course he goes;
While, from his exhaustless fountains,
Pours a stream that ever flows.

A Review of the Gallery of the American Academy of Fine Arts, as now opened for the Exhibition of Dunlap's Painting of "Death on the Pale Horse." (continued.)

As in duty bound, we visit the gallery frequently; that such additions as shall be from time to time made to the collection, may not escape our critical inspection. We need not say that

we are always rewarded ; but on our last visit we were particularly gratified, by finding another landscape from the pencil of Mr. S. Cole. This is a view of part of the upper falls in the Kattskill mountains ; and is the picture which attracted the attention of the president of our academy, and by that means brought into public view, the uncommon talent of Mr. Cole. Though not a more perfect picture than the lake scene noticed in our last number, it is more splendid, more brilliant, and more poetical. The artist had more difficulties to surmount, and, as he has surmounted them, has evinced more skill. We will call the attention of the spectator to the depth into which the water is rushing—to the rocks—to the autumnal foliage of the forest, so bright, so true, and so harmonious ; and then direct his eye to the distant mountain, from which the wind is whirling the mist-cloud, and scattering it abroad into the heavens. This beautiful composition, evinces in the painter the true poetical feeling of the sublime. This picture would, of itself, place Mr. Cole among the most eminent landscape painters, but his claim to that station is made out to the perfect satisfaction of the connoisseur, when the varied and contrasted excellences of the three pictures (two of which we have noticed) are viewed at the same time.

Before returning to the Catalogue, we must notice the two charming pictures by Newton and Leslie, with which Mr. P. Hone has enriched the Gallery and his country.

The first, Newton's representation of Age and Youth, we should call the most splendid painting of the two. The breadth of light and brilliancy of colouring, catch the eye, and hold it by fascination, by the magic of sweet tints. The scene appears to be Flemish, and perhaps reminds us a little too much of the Flemish school ; not of its vulgarity or indecency, but of its better and higher qualities. The girl sleeps from top to toe ; full of health, and ornamented with the beauty which health and youth and goodly attire give, but without any of the elegance of the *beau ideal*, she is an object on which the eye dwells with delight ; and though we smile while contrasting her with her studious companion, we would not wish to awaken her to the cares which evidently beset him. This beautiful figure is connected with the aged reader by a table, covered with a rich cloth, and the eye passing from its rich tints, rests pleased upon the more sober colours of the old man. This figure is nearer perfection than the first, and is painted with a skill and freedom rarely to be found combined with so high finishing. The light of the picture, which enters at a window, spreads beautifully over the figure of the girl, upon the

table cloth, upon a remarkably well painted map in the background, and rests upon the chimney front above, and the floor below, leaving a triangular mass of a rich dark colour on and behind the old man. Care, study, skill and talent, are evinced in every part of this splendid and masterly performance.

After having expressed our admiration of the Newton in such glowing terms, it might be feared, that in speaking of Leslie, we should run into repetition; but the compositions are so distinct in character, and the subjects so widely different, that in describing or criticising, sameness cannot occur.

This scene of humour from the great Master of Nature, is so treated by the painter as to bring before the spectator, the imaginary personages of the poet, as he saw them in his mind's eye. They are not the Anne Page, Slender and Shallow of the stage—but we are introduced into the house of Master Page, whom we see at a distance speaking with Master Fenton, we hear the shallow merry old justice say "she's coming; to her coz. O boy, thou hadst a father!" and the booby boy echo, "I had a father, Mistress Anne;—my uncle can tell you good jests of him;—pray you uncle, tell Mistress Anne the jest, how my father stole two geese out of a pen, good uncle."

To understand the figure, attitude and expression of the beautiful Anne, or "sweet Anne Page," we must remember that she had just parted from Fenton, her beloved lover, and read her speech relative to Slender; "This is my father's choice. O what a vile world of ill favour'd faults, looks handsome in three hundred pounds a year!" In short, to relish the picture, the spectator should come fresh from reading the scene; and he will then understand and feel the *non-chalance* of Anne—the gawky air of the retiring Slender—the edging on of the uncle, with his sly self-sufficient visage. Then contemplate the propriety of the costume of each character—true to the time and as full of the author are the faces of the personages; with this preparation, having viewed the picture, it must be pronounced a master piece.

Mr. Leslie owes his superiority over his competitor, partly to the happy choice of his subject, partly to the power of conceiving the humour of the author in its full extent, yet giving it with a delicacy belonging peculiarly to his own character, and partly to his superior drawing and knowledge of *chiaro oscuro*.

Our limits will not permit us to point out the many minute, though great beauties, which pervade both these very fine pictures. They may be studied again and again, to the profit of the artist, and the delight of the amateur.

Before we resume our consideration of the pictures numbered

in the catalogue, notwithstanding our previous intention of leaving the representation of the king of terrors, and his surrounding horrors, to the last, we will take this opportunity, while fresh from the examination of Newton and Leslie, to give our opinion of the merits of this gigantic composition by another American.

Mr. Dunlap has avowedly made use of the little outline which was published some years ago from Mr. West's sketch of *Death on the Pale Horse.* Artists only can appreciate the assistance he would derive from this hint; and they alone can know how much he had to do, before he could produce the present splendid painting.

The outline, doubtless, gave the arrangement of the figures and groupes, but the whole effect of light, shadow, and colour, was left to the invention of Mr. Dunlap, as well as the drawing of the individual figures, and expression of the individual countenances; for the little outline we speak of, is so very small as not to admit of either.

Having settled what portion of responsibility is to be thrown upon the author of the picture before us, we go on to say, that he has produced an effect greater than we ever saw produced by painting.

It has been said, that the subject is beyond the reach of the pencil, and that the picture is consequently a failure. If the painter was bound to attempt nothing but what could be brought before him, visible and tangible, this would be true. But with the poet he may ascend into Heaven, or dive into hell; and though neither fully succeed in depicting the scenes of the world unknown, the attempt alone produces a sublimity and a perfection, which would not otherwise be attained. Witness the Last Judgment of Michael Angelo, the Inferno of Dante, the Paradise Lost of Milton, and, we will add, the present sublime composition of Death upon the Pale Horse. This great picture, though strictly *one* in its action and combination of effects, is divided into three parts, or pyramidal groupes, all united by light and colour. The centre or principal groupe, contains the pale horse and his rider, and a family consisting of a father, mother, daughter, and infant boy, forming the great light of the composition, and changing the terrible of the first impression, into the tenderness of the pathetic.

The husband and father—the youthful and beautiful wife and mother—the daughter and son—all in the pride of wealth and health, are blasted instantaneously by the breath of the horse, and the darts of his merciless rider. There is here a combi-

nation of light, shadow and colour, which the ignorant, as well as the connoisseur, must feel and appreciate.

The second portion of the picture contains the white horse and his rider (Gospel) going forth crowned, conquering and to conquer—the red horse and his rider armed at all points, and brandishing his sword, and the black horse and his rider, the judge with his balances.

The light of this portion of the composition is on the white horse; who, self-directed, bears his triumphant master; and this light is gradually diffused, until lost above in the lurid light of the followers of death, and below, in the distant field of battle.

This groupe, although full of spirit and sublimity, is inferior, as it ought to be, to the centre of the picture.

On the other side of the canvass is exhibited the destruction of the beasts of the earth. Men and horses are overthrown by the rushing of two lions; some are in helpless despondency, others resisting, and the force of contrast is skilfully shown in every part. The finest figure, and that which has occupied most of the labour and attention of the artist, is a man who is overthrown, but is preparing to rise, and presents to the spectator a fine *back*, extremely well drawn and coloured.

Here we have another pyramid, the base of which is formed by the figures above mentioned, and the top, by the thigh and leg of a youth who is tossed by a bull.

The light of the picture is carried skilfully from the lower corner on the left, where it rests on the spearman's foot, to the upper corner on the right, where it mingles in the sulphureous tint of the hell-brood, who follow in the train of death.

We have implied our approbation of the general tone of colour which runs through this stupendous composition. We will only remark the peculiar beauty of the colours, and the harmonious transition on the mother and dead child, and the girl, lovely in youth and health, with the receding tints on the manly form of the husband and father.

We believe the combination of light and colour to be according to the best and most philosophical theory, which is elucidated in the simplest and most forcible manner, by the familiar instance of the billiard ball. Extreme light, cold—middle light, warm—half tint, cold and blue—shadow neutralized, but inclining to warmth—reflex, warm, and of the orange tint.

As we wish to finish our review in this number, we must limit our observations, and take leave of this great work, to proceed to

No. 55 of the catalogue. Portrait of a gentleman. Waldo

& Jewett. This is truly a portrait; and the composition, drawing, and colouring, are worthy of the high rank of these gentlemen as portrait painters.

No. 59. Still Life. Lent by Mrs. Rogers. Old Master. This, and No. 63, by the same hand, are truly valuable pictures, painted with great skill and care, full of rich colouring, and entitled to stand high as specimens of this branch of the art.

No. 64. Dead Fish. J. S. Cogdell. This beautiful picture, and its companion, No. 66, by the same American artist, will stand the nicest scrutiny of the observer, and repay his attention with pleasure. The lovers of the soft and the smooth must be fully gratified.

No. 76. Beggar Boys eating fruit. Lent by G. C. Verplanck, Esq. *Murillo.* This is probably a copy from the master mentioned in the catalogue. This great Spanish painter seemed, in the early part of his life, to delight in the scenes of low humour, which he expressed with exquisite truth. He afterwards rose to subjects of dignity and grace, and it is on such that his great fame rests. In this picture nature has been faithfully studied, and successfully copied.

No. 77. Neptune with the spoils of the ocean. Lent by Count Survilliers. *L. Giordano.* When we view this, and No. 99, by the same hand, our first sensation is admiration at the skill displayed, our second, regret that it should be so employed. Does it not appear strange, that the talents of Lucca Giordano, which were equal to depicting the persons or histories of heroes and demi-gods, should be wasted in painting a fish market; for, notwithstanding their titles, these paintings are nothing but two masses or heaps of fish, drawn and coloured with exquisite skill.

No. 78 and 79, are two very beautiful specimens of the pencil of Teniers, lent by Count Survilliers.

No. 90 is a fine Charity, lent by the same, and painted by Schedoni.

No. 91. Portrait of a child. Lent by Mrs. Drake. Painted by H. Inman. This, beautiful as it is, is not the best picture we have seen by this very meritorious artist.

No. 92. Battle Piece. Lent by G. C. Verplanck, Esq. *Old Master.* Truly the work of a master.

No. 94 and 95. Two very fine Vernets. Lent by Count Survilliers. The name of Vernet is recommendation enough, when we add they are undoubtedly original.

No. 103. Old Head of St. Peter. Lent by Mrs. Rogers. *Rubens.* Original, and very fine, whether St. Peter or not.

No. 104. Portrait of the late Mr. James Rivington at the age of 24 years. Lent by his daughter Miss S. Rivington.

Sir F. Coates. One of the finest specimens of Crayon painting we have ever seen.

No. 105. Landscape. Lent by Count Survilliers. *S. Rosa.* We think this a true Salvator. At all events, it is a fine picture, but injured.

No. 119 is a copy from Hogarth by Leslie, who now paints originals much better than Hogarth ever did.

No. 120. Musidora. Designed and engraved by A. B. Durand. Mr. Durand is known to the public as the best engraver in America, and this print shows that his talent is not confined to the *needle* or *burin*. Here is beautiful composition, and fine drawing; in fact, Mr. Durand, as a man and an artist, is an ornament and honour to his country.

No. 125. Portrait of a gentleman. Presented to this academy by the artist, on his being elected an honorary member. *Sir Henry Haeburn.* This is one of the finest specimens of portrait painting which we have ever seen. It is a model for our students, and an invaluable present to our academy.

We close our review by noticing a groupe in bronze, numbered 136 in the catalogue, and called the Centaur. This groupe, evidently not antique, forms a pyramid whose base is of figures emblematical of the arts, whose centre is a female Centaur, and whose apex is a figure of Truth. At first view, the artist's intention is not perceived; and if the visiter of the academy consults his catalogue, we think he will be more than ever in the dark after reading the *explanation.* We will try to enlighten him.

The key to the composition is the Centaur, the emblem of science or philosophy. Literature and the Arts, the base of the pyramidal groupe, support Science, who, with one hand, upholds and exalts Truth, a female, with a sceptre in one hand, and part of a mirror in the other. The Centaur, or Philosophy, with the other hand, plunges a dagger into the bosom of a squalid female figure, who is, undoubtedly, meant to represent Error. There are other subordinate parts of the composition which are ingenious, but partake of conceit and affectation.

We here take leave of the present exhibition, which is creditable to the academy, and proves, to demonstration, the increasing taste for the arts, and the rapid improvement of our artists. We hope the public will reward the artist, at whose expense and risk it is now supported.

In our former number, we noticed the association of artists for improvement. We are informed, that the directors of the academy have pledged themselves to use their influence with

the stockholders, to place six artists of the association in the directory: meaning to unite the interest of the artists with that of the stockholders—making of the establishment a real school of art, as well as a gallery for the display of it. This plan will be supported by every enlightened and public spirited citizen.

THE INDIAN GIRL'S LAMENT.

An Indian girl was sitting where
Her lover, slain in battle, slept;
Her maiden veil, her own black hair,*
Came down o'er eyes that wept;
And wildly, in her woodland tongue,
This sad and simple lay she sung:

I've pulled away the shrubs that grew
Too close above thy sleeping head,
And broke the forest boughs that threw
Their shadows o'er thy bed,
That shining from the sweet south-west
The sun-beams might rejoice thy rest.

It was a weary, weary road,
That led thee to the pleasant coast,
Where thou, in his serene abode,
Hast met thy father's ghost;
Where everlasting autumn lies
On yellow woods and sunny skies.

'Twas I the broidered mock'sen made,
That shod thee for that distant land:
'Twas I thy bow and arrows laid
Beside thy still cold hand;
Thy bow in many a battle bent,
Thy arrows never vainly sent.

With wampum belts I crossed thy breast,
And wrapped thee in the bison's hide,
And laid the food that pleased thee best,
In plenty, by thy side,
And decked thee bravely, as became
A warrior of illustrious name.

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* "The unmarried women have a modest falling down of the hair over the eyes." Eliot.

Thou'rt happy now, for thou art past
The long dark journey of the grave,
And in the land of light, at last,
Hast joined the good and brave;
Amid the flushed and balmy air,
The bravest and the loveliest there.

Yet, to thy own dear Indian maid
Thy thoughts will sometimes earthward stray,
To her who sits where thou wert laid,
And weeps the hours away;
Yet almost can her grief forget,
To think that thou dost love her yet.

And thou, by one of those still lakes
That in a shining cluster lie,
On which the south wind scarcely breaks
The image of the sky,
A bower for thee and me hast made
Beneath the many-coloured shade.

And thou dost wait and watch to meet
My spirit sent to join the blest,
And, wondering what detains my feet
From the bright land of rest,
Dost seem, in every sound, to hear
The rustling of my footsteps near. B.

LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

Ruins of Pompeii.—The excavations at Pompeii are going on with great success. Only about fifty workmen are employed, but their labours have been so well directed, that not only many buildings, but even entire streets, have been uncovered. Among these new discoveries is that of a magnificent temple, which appears to have been a kind of Pantheon. On the walls of the chambers are pictures on different subjects in good preservation, and in two of the niches of the building are two statues, pronounced by the antiquaries to be those of Nero and Messalina.

Imitation of Gold.—Dr. Hermstadt, of Hanover, has invented a composition which resembles gold, not only in colour, but in specific gravity, in density and ductility. The following

is the receipt for making it: Take sixteen ounces of virgin platina, seven of copper, and one of zinc, all of equal purity, put them in a crucible, cover them with powdered charcoal, and subject them to a fire until melted into one mass.

Festival in honour of Schiller.—The anniversary of Schiller's death has been celebrated at Stuttgart, in Germany, with great ceremony, and an immense concourse of people. The bust of Schiller was brought out and placed in a public garden, in the midst of the assembly, and hymns and odes were sung. The magistrates of Marbach, the native town of the poet, attended on this occasion in their official capacity, and among the multitude assembled to do honour to his memory were several friends of his early youth. A subscription was set on foot for the erection of a monument, and filled immediately.

Languages of the World.—According to the enumeration of Professor Adelung, there are in the world 3064 different languages, of which 587 are spoken in Europe, 937 in Asia, 276 in Africa, and 1264 in America. The Professor probably includes in this enumeration many provincial corruptions of the same general languages.

Swedish Prisons.—Commissioners have been appointed by the king of Sweden, to inquire into the arrangement and discipline of the prisons in the kingdom, and to suggest plans for their improvement. They have proposed to divide the prisons into classes, and have recommended to his majesty the erection of a state penitentiary.

Schools in Greece.—At *Argos* is established a general school of mutual instruction, to which young men are sent from all the Greek provinces, for the purpose of learning the method, and diffusing its benefits among all their countrymen. It has now about two hundred scholars—some of these are young ladies, who receive their lessons separately. At Athens are two central schools of mutual instruction, and two grammar schools, of which one has received the name of Lyceum. In this latter are taught, 1st. The ancient Greek language compared with the modern. 2d. The Italian language. 3d. The elements of geography, of arithmetic, of geometry, of logic and metaphysics. In the island of *Tino* is a central school of mutual instruction, and a lyceum. In the island of Andros are three schools of mutual instruction, and two grammar schools. *Syphaos* has also a grammar school, into which it is intended to in-

troduce the system of mutual instruction as soon as a master can be procured. In *Patmos* there existed before the late revolution a flourishing school, in which were taught with great success the ancient Greek tongue, the philosophy of Aristotle, rhetoric and poetry. This school still exists, though in less reputation than formerly, on account of circumstances connected with the late troubles. In the same island is a library particularly rich in manuscripts, and a school of mutual instruction. In the *Cyclades* and the *Sporades* are from one to three schools in each island, according to its extent. In these are taught ancient Greek and the elements of philosophy, and in some the French and Italian languages. *Tripolitza*, *St. John*, (*Astros*) and *St. Petros*, a village near *Astros*, and *Missolunghi*, have each a school of mutual instruction and a grammar school. The grammar school at *St. John* has a good library and philosophical instruments. In the province of *Karitene* are four grammar schools. Many of these schools are kept in the Turkish mosques, and some, for want of convenient buildings, under the shade of trees. The interests of instruction, however, suffer very much from the scarcity of spelling books; slates and writing materials are so expensive and difficult to obtain, that in most private schools in the small villages, the scholars are only taught to read.

Improvisation.—Paris has at length produced a rival of Querno and Corinna. Mons. Pradel continues to astonish the inhabitants of that city by the facility with which he produces extempore poems on any given subject. On one occasion Christopher Columbus in chains, was prescribed to him as the subject of his verses, and the following lines are given as a part of his poem:

Miserable jouet de la faveur des grands,
Je gemis je languis dans une nuit profonde
Je meurs, helas! victime des tyrans,
Et je viens d'agrandir le monde.

At another time he concluded a poem on Spartiates, the only survivor of the three hundred who fought with Leonidas, with this quatrain:

Quel climat, quel pays m'offriront leurs asyles?
Victime du plus triste sort,
Quand je dirai j'etais aux Thermopyles
Chacun me repondra: Pourquoi n'es tu pas mort?

On the 28th of August M. Pradel delivered an improvisation for the benefit of the sufferers at the late fire at Salins. The audience were consulted respecting the subject of his

verses, and several were proposed, among which the Death of Byron, and the Conflagration of Salins, were adopted by acclamation, and were treated by the poet in a manner that showed the admirable readiness of his talent. Some happy verses, it is said, called forth loud applauses.

Magnetic Equator. A French paper mentions, that Capt. Duperrey, of the Coquille sloop of war, which sailed from Soulon on a voyage of discovery, in August, 1822, and returned to Marseilles in April last, has made many interesting magnetic observations in his voyage. "Every body knows that there are, on the surface of the globe, a number of spots where the compass ceases to point; and that a line drawn through those spots is called the magnetic equator. This equator must not be confounded with the terrestrial equator, round which it winds, sometimes passing to the north of it, and sometimes to the south, to a greater or less extent. In the course of his voyage, Duperrey crossed the magnetic equator six times; and the result of his observations renders it extremely probable, that the whole line is moving in a parallel direction from east to west, with such rapidity, that since the year 1780, when its place was ascertained by scientific men in a very satisfactory manner, it has advanced no less than ten degrees towards the west."

Miss Edgeworth. This lady has lately given the world a work, entitled, *Harry and Lucy concluded, being the last part of Early Lessons.* It is the continuation of a work begun above half a century ago by her father. It is intended for young people from the age of ten to that of fourteen, and embraces a review of many sciences, and in particular of the mechanic arts, and of manufactures, which have arrived at so high a perfection in England. It has been translated into French immediately on its appearance, and both the British and French journalists speak of it in terms of the highest praise.

Blunt's Historical Sketch. We had prepared for the review department of this number, a notice of Mr. Blunt's work, entitled, "A Historical Sketch of the formation of the Confederacy, particularly with reference to the Provincial limits, and the jurisdiction of the General Government over Indian tribes, and the public territory;" published by the Messrs. Carvill, of this city. The length of the articles entitled to precedence, has excluded our remarks on this work, from the present number. The research and patient labour manifested by the author, on a subject which is now peculiarly important.

and which must soon engage the attention of our national legislature, entitle him to the thanks of the community. He has not only made a faithful compilation of the particulars to be gathered from an investigation of the *antiquities* of our colonial settlements, but has brought forward some facts, in relation to treaties of more recent date, which have hitherto been but partially known, even by statesmen. We regret, that the reason we have assigned above, permits us only to refer our readers to the work itself, as throwing much historical light on questions which have recently involved much loose speculation.

Ray's Address. We must plead the same excuse for being obliged to express, in such brief terms, the pleasure we have received from a perusal of this address, delivered before the American Academy of the Fine Arts, in this city. It exhibits, in its mechanical execution, gratifying evidence of the improvement of the typographical art, and is a beautiful specimen of what can be done here, in the way of fine printing. The engraving which accompanies it is creditable to the artist, though we cannot, in conscience, say, that the drawing, or the outlines of the figure, would give a just idea of the Apollo Belvidere, to one who had never seen the statue, or its plaster copy.— It is highly refreshing to find those who have the ability, not only from intellectual propensities, but from favourable circumstances, to foster and assist the developement of native talent in those departments, which, being least practical, require most encouragement, taking an active part in the work. If the accomplished author of this address be, as we believe he is, a *novus hospes* in the domain of literature, we bid him welcome with sincerity and joy.

Lawrence's Address. A second edition of the Address of Mr. Lawrence, delivered at the opening of the eleventh exhibition of the American Academy of the Fine Arts, on the 10th of May last, is nearly ready for publication, by Messrs. G. & C. Carvill, of this city. We have seen part of the impression; it is elegantly printed, and its value is still farther increased by the notes with which the learning of the author has illustrated the text.

☞Since the article on Mr. Verplanck's book was written for the present number, we understand, that the property of the work has been transferred to Messrs. G. & C. Carvill, by whom it is now published.

THE

REMEMBRANCER.

A ſhort View of the ancient and preſent State of our American Colonies, *with ſome few Obſervations on our preſent Quarrel with them. By a Gentleman.*

Sine me, Liber, ibis in urbem.

THOUGH much has been ſaid on both ſides concerning our preſent diſputes with our *American Colonies*, yet the true ſtate of the caſe does not appear to me to have been hit upon by either party: they all argue upon general maxims of policy, and take no notice of the particular circumſtances of facts, which are the only ſure guides in ſuch caſes.

It is taken for granted that our *American Coloniſts* are *Rebels*, and *Rebellion* muſt be ſuppreſſed by all poſſible means. But though I pay a great deference to the *Miniſterial* Proclamation that has declared them to be *Rebels*, yet I hope it will be no treaſon to doubt whether that *Miniſterial* Declaration be made upon ſufficient grounds or no.

Indeed, if the word *Rebellion* be taken in its moſt extenſive meaning, every forcible oppoſition to any Government is a *Rebellion* againſt that Government; but with us, the *Principles of the Revolution* do allow *Reſiſtance* to be lawful in caſe of oppreſſion. Therefore, before it can be determined whether the *Americans* are *Rebels* or no, it muſt be conſidered whether they have been *oppreſſed* or no.

In order to determine this Point, it will be neceſſary to look back to the original inſtitution of the Colonies, and the ſeveral alterations that have been made from time to time in the Government of each, which will bring us to the preſent legal ſtate of them.

Here it will not be amiſs to caſt an eye upon the Nature of our Original Claim to Sovereignty over theſe Countries; it is founded

upon *Prior Occupancy* as we were the firſt diſcoverers of them ; and if they had not been occupied by any of the human Species, that Plea might be good. But, alas ! their Inhabitants were very numerous, they cultivated their Lands in their own way, to ſupply them with the neceſſaries of Life which was all they wanted ; their Cachiques were their Kings, and many of theſe had Sachems, or petty Princes under them, and theſe were *Special Occupants* of the Country, which, by the Rules even of our Law, annihilates all claim of *Common Occupancy*.

The Natives therefore had certainly the ſame right to thoſe Lands, and their Kings to the Sovereignty of them that any Nation or King in Europe can have to the Lands or Sovereignty of each reſpective Country. And their not being Chriſtians is very abſurd, and a very nugatory Plea, for *the Kingdom of Chriſt is not of this World* ; and propagating Religion by Fire and Sword is downright Mahometaniſm.—Chriſt and his Apoſtles uſed other means.

As to the Natives formally owning themſelves to be the Subjects of our Sovereigns, I think no great ſtreſs can be laid upon it ; for though ſome of them have done it, after their being ſoundly beaten, that is, when compelled by mere dint of force ; yet it it certain they had no notion of the obligation of written Treaties, and their frequent violations of them ſhew plainly that, according to their Syſtem, which muſt be their Guide, they did not think them binding.

Thus much for the *Native Indians* ; we come now to conſider of the *Engliſh Settlers in that Country*. But firſt I muſt obſerve, that if any of the Inhabitants of the other ſide of the Globe ſhould become ſufficient Navigators to diſcover England, I truſt we ſhould look on this Diſcovery as a very weak pretence for their laying Claim to our Country, as *Prior Occupants*, though they knew of no ſuch Country, nor we of any ſuch people before, and yet this the real Caſe of our Original Claim to North America, and upon this Foundation only have our Kings and Queens granted Patents to their Subjects to eſtabliſh Settlements in that Country. *Quo jure videant ipſi.*

I come now to conſider the Caſe of thoſe Engliſhmen who have ſettled there.

North America was firſt diſcovered in the Year 1497 by *Cabot*, in an attempt which he made to diſcover a North Weſt Paſſage to *China* ; but no attempt, either to navigate the Coaſt, or eſtabliſh any Colony there, was made for a Century after.

Mr. *Raleigh* (afterwards Sir *Walter*) firſt ſchemed the Project of diſcovering Lands, and ſettling Colonies in *North America*, and in the year 1584 he obtained a Patent from *Queen Elizabeth* for that purpoſe. Upon this, he, with the aſſiſtance of ſome other private Perſons, fitted out ſhips, on board of which ſome adventurers embarked. They were at firſt kindly received by the Natives, and they continued to be ſo, as long as they attempted only to trade with them ; but as

ſoon

ſoon as they ſhewed any ſigns of an inclination to *eſtabliſh Settlements among them*, the Natives grew jealous, and the four or five firſt companies of Settlers were, either cut to pieces by the Natives, or were obliged to ſave their lives by abandoning their uſurpations.

It was the year 1607 before they could compaſs the making any Settlement at all, but about that time, under a patent granted to the London and Briſtol Companies (Sir *Walter Raleigh's* Patent being vacated by his Attainder) a ſmall one was made about fifty miles from the entrance of the River *Powhatoc* (now *James River*) in *Virginia*, that Country being the Scene of our firſt attempts this way; they gave this Settlement the name of *James Town*.

But here they were continually haraſſed by the Natives, and often were put to great extremities by them, nor had they any peace or quiet till one Captain *Rolfe*, about 1612, married *the Daughter of the great Indian Chief Powhatoc*.

From this time the Colony began to flouriſh, and in a few years they by common conſent, under the direction of their Governor Sir *George Yardly*, brought their Government to a Form reſembling that of an Engliſh Parliament; but, *their Governor was appointed by the Company, not by the Crown*. The firſt Seſſion of their Aſſembly, or Parliament, was held in the year 1620, at *James Town*: and the Crown does not appear to have had any ſhare in their Government.

This was the Origin of our firſt Settlements on the Continent of *North America*.

By this ſhort extract we ſee that the *Native Americans* had very juſt notions of their property in the Lands of their own Country, and that they diſputed every inch of ground with their invaders; and had not the uſe of Fire Arms given the Engliſh great advantages over them, they would probably have defeated all their attempts, for they wanted neither Courage nor Cunning. We ſee likewiſe that this firſt Colony ſettled the Form of their Government among themſelves, *without any intervention of an Engliſh Parliament*.

The next Settlement that falls under our conſideration is that of the Country called *New England*, being ſo named by King *Charles* I. when Prince of Wales; it comprehends the Colonies of *Maſſachuſet's Bay*, *New Plymouth*, *Connecticut* and *Rhode-Iſland*, *New Hampſhire* likewiſe, and the Province of *Maine* are appendages to *Maſſachuſet's Bay*. The conſtitution of theſe Colonies deſerves a particular conſideration, becauſe with theſe our preſent Quarrel firſt began, and their Country is now the Seat of a moſt unnatural Civil War.

Though it is more than probable that *Cabot*, Sir *Walter Raleigh*, and Sir *Francis Drake* knew of this Country, yet we have no ſatisfactory account of it till the year 1602, when Captain *Geſnold*, at the inſtigation of Sir *Francis Drake*, performed a Voyage to thoſe Parts; after touching at many places, he at laſt made a Settlement, that is, he built a ſmall Fort, on a place which he called *Martha's Vineyard*,

and traded with the Natives, whom he found to be hoſpitable and inoffenſive, but he attempted nothing farther.

This Trade proved ſo advantageous, that the Merchants who employed *Geſnold*, being chiefly *Plymouth men*, obtained a Grant from King *James* I. in the year 1606, authorizing them to ſettle any where between 38 and 45 Degrees of North Latitude. The Country was then called *North Virginia*, and the Grantees were called the *Council of Plymouth*.

They ſent Ships thither, and began a Settlement at the mouth of *Sagadahock* River; but on ſome of the Natives being kidnapped and ſold to the Spaniards at Malaga, the reſt were ſo incenſed againſt the Engliſh Settlers, that they were not able to continue their Settlement, though other Adventurers, who only traded with them, without attempting to make a Settlement in their Country, did it to great advantage.

All the former Schemes thus proving abortive, the complete Settlement of *New England* owed its Riſe to a Set of Diſſenters, who being perſecuted, as they complained, for their Religion, had fled from England into Holland in the Reign of King *James* I. Sir *Robert Naunton*, then Secretary of State, being their Friend, they by his means, obtained Leave to enjoy Liberty of Conſcience in any Settlement they ſhould make in *North America*.

This Point once gained, ſeveral Diſſenters, who were men of Fortune, ſold their Eſtates, and threw the produce into a common Bank, to carry on their undertaking. In the year 1616, they embarked at *Plymouth*, intending to make a Settlement under *Geſnold's* Grant abovementioned. But by miſtake they landed at *Cape Cod*, which was not within his Grant. However, they gave out that they had treated with the *Cacique*, and other *Principals of the Natives*, from whom they purchaſed a Right to ſettle on their Land; which, if true, was in fact a much better title than any Grant from the King of England could give them.

Having thus acquired a Right to ſettle, they ſent out Parties to view the Country, and look out for a convenient ſpot on which they might make their Settlement. But firſt, they aſſociated themſelves by a formal Inſtrument, and agreed to ſubmit to ſuch Laws as ſhould be made (by themſelves undoubtedly) from time to time, for the Good of the Colony; and they choſe one of their Company to preſide over them as Governor. Having found a convenient Spot, they began to build Store-houſes, and agreed to call their infant Settlement *New Plymouth*, becauſe, beſides the King's Leave to emigrate, they had a Patent from the *Council of Plymouth* abovementioned.

They ſoon eſtabliſhed ſo friendly a Correſpondence with the Natives, that their great Sachem, or King, *Maſſaſſoit* made a Preſent, *to them and their Heirs and Succeſſors for ever*, of the Spot on which *New Plymouth* was built, and all the adjacent Lands, which was only

a Confirmation of the Right which they had before purchaſed; for as that Leave ran in general Terms, the particular ſite of their Settlement was now granted to them.

In the year 1621, Mr. *Weſton*, one of the original Plymouth Adventurers, ſent a new ſupply of men, and broke off from the Colony, producing a Patent for making a Settlement on part of the *Maſſachuſet's Bay*, on propagating the Church of England worſhip; for the *New Plymouth* men were all rigid Diſſenters. But this Settlement was prevented by the oppoſition of the Natives, who had formed a conſpiracy to cut off all *Weſton's* Party. But the *Plymouth* men, coming accidentally to the knowledge of the Plot, diſcovered it to them, and ſaved their lives, on which they left the Country.

In 1623, *the New Plymouthers*, who all this while held their poſſeſſion under an Agreement with the *Council of Plymouth*, had flouriſhed ſo much that, in ſeven years they offered to buy out the Patentees, who accepted the offer. And now the Coloniſts erected themſelves into a *Republic*.

In the year 1627, the Puritans in England laid a ſcheme for making a Settlement at *Maſſachuſet's Bay* of their own Body: at the head of which Scheme was one Mr. *John White*, the Puritan Miniſter of *Dorcheſter*, who procured a Patent from the *Council of Plymouth* to ſeveral Gentlemen, for all that part of the Country that lies three miles North of the River *Merrimack*, which falls into the Sea near *Saliſbury*, and three miles South of *Charles River*, which falls into the Sea near *Boſton*, at the bottom of *Maſſachuſet's Bay*. But the number of Patentees being much encreaſed, Mr. *White* the next year got a new Patent, by which they were incorporated by the name of the *Governor and Company of Maſſachuſet's Bay in New England*, and they were impowered to *elect a Governor*, *Deputy Governor*, and *Magiſtrates*, and *to make Plantation Laws*, provided they were not repugnant to the Laws of England; and Liberty of Conſcience was granted to all that ſhould ſettle there. This Patent was confirmed by a Grant from King *Charles* I. to hold the ſaid Lands, as mentioned in the Patent of the Plymouth Company, of him, as part of his *Mannour of Eaſt Greenwich*, in common Soccage, paying to his Majeſty one fifth part of all the Gold and Silver ore found there. This is the firſt Grant of *particular Lands in America* that ever our Kings attempted to make. Of the Nature of ſuch Grants I have ſaid ſomething before, and I ſhall ſpeak of them again in the ſequel. Theſe people ſettled at *Salem*.

In the year 1630, a large new Supply of Diſſenters arrived at *Salem*, and divided themſelves into two Bodies, one of which ſettled at *Charles Town*, and the other at *Dorcheſter*, thoſe of *Charles Town* ſoon ſaw the advantageous ſituation of the Spot on which *Boſton* ſtands, and built that City there.

In 1635, Sir *Hen. Vane* the younger went over with a large Company

pany to make a Settlement on the River *Connecticut*, but the Government of the *Maſſachuſets* being offered to him, he accepted it; however, he did not hold it long, for at the next annual Election, on account of his *Independent Principles*, he was ſet aſide.

The two Settlements of *New Plymouth* and *Maſſachuſets*, by freſh Emigrations grew ſo populous, that many who were already ſettled, to get more elbow room, removed to the Banks of the River *Connecticut*, where great part of their Settlements being without the limits of the *Maſſachuſet's Bay Company*, under whoſe Commiſſion they acted, *they agreed upon a Plan of Government among themſelves, and choſe a Governor.*

In 1636, So many Planters arrived, that they could find no place for them to ſettle on in *Maſſachuſet's Bay*; ſo they *purchaſed from the Natives* the Land that lies between *Connecticut* and *New York*, called *Hudſon's River*, where they founded the Town, Colony, Province, and Government of *Newhaven*; which with *Long Iſland*, for that was comprehended in their purchaſe, was ſoon filled with Towns.

Soon after this, ſome religious Diſputes happening in New England, a Synod was called, and the broachers of ſome new opinions being puniſhed, all that Sect whom they called *Antinomians* retired, and *purchaſed* of the Natives *Rhode-Iſland*, and, being overſtocked with Inhabitants, part of them purchaſed Lands near the *River Patuxet*, where they built the Towns of *Providence* and *Warwick*, which flouriſhed greatly.

Some ſmaller Settlements were made after this time, all comprehended under the general Denomination of *New England*; and though they were all of them under ſeparate Governments, yet a kind of Fœderal union ſubſiſted among them, which in 1643 was confirmed by formal Articles of confederation between the Governments of the *Maſſachuſets*, *New Plymouth*, *Connecticut*, *Newhaven*, and the Plantations in connection therewith; ſomething upon the Model of the United Provinces, without the leaſt mention of Old England: and they were ſo far from acknowledging any authority of the *Engliſh Parliament* over them, that the general Court of the *Maſſachuſets* fined and impriſoned certain Perſons, for offering to appeal to the *Engliſh Parliament*, againſt a Sentence which they had paſſed.

About the year 1662, the *Connecticut* and *Newhaven* Settlers being within neither of the former Grants, applied to the Court of England for a Charter to unite them into one Body corporate, which they obtained.

When the Act called the *Bartholomew* Act took place, many of the ejected diſſenting Miniſters retired to *New England*; and the *New Englanders* of that Age had always affected to be independent on the Mother Country, in reſpect of the internal Policy of their Government.

When King Charles II. upon the breaking out of the Dutch War, ſent

ſent a Squadron to drive the Dutch from *New York*, the two Commanders of the Fleet and the Land Forces, with two other Commiſſioners, were ordered to go to *New England* to ſettle all differences in the Colonies. They delivered Letters from the *King* to the *Governor and Council of New Plymouth*, requiring them to acknowledge themſelves to be as much his Subjects as if they had ſtaid in their natural Country; promiſing at the ſame time, *to preſerve all their Liberties and Privileges both Eccleſiaſtical and Civil.* This Propoſal went much againſt the grain with the *New Plymouthers*, but I do not find that they rejected it.

In general the *New England Charters*, where they had any, were held either from the *Council of Plymouth*, or the *Maſſachuſet's Bay Company*. But in the year 1603, King *Charles* II. called them all into his hands; and the next year brought *quo warranto Writs* againſt the *New Plymouth* Colony, upon which *Judgment was entered againſt them in Chancery*; this ſo much frightened the reſt that they all ſurrendered their Charters, and, ſince that time, their Governor and Council have been named by the King.

This was a high ſtrain of Prerogative, but the People there did not long acquieſce in the new Regulation; for when Mr. *Dudley*, (a Friend to the Church of England) was made Governor, upon the Death of *Charles* II. the *New Englandmen*, by their own Authority, depoſed him, and ſent him Priſoner to Old England, to ſhew their diſapprobation of the King's Nomination. They likewiſe depoſed Sir *Edmund Andros*, the next Governor, and, by their own Authority, reſumed their *Charter Government*; which *Proceeding of theirs was approved of by King William and Queen Mary, who confirmed the reſtored Charter Magiſtrates in their Power.*

But notwithſtanding this, that King could never be prevailed on to eſtabliſh their *Old Charter Government:* inſtead of it he granted them a *New Charter*, by which many of the Privileges which they enjoyed under their old ones were taken away, for "the Crown was "now to have the Nomination of the Governor, Lieutenant Go- "vernor, Secretary, and the Officers of the Admiralty (the choice "of all theſe was before in the People) and the Power of the Mi- "litia was veſted in the Governors. All Judges, Juſtices, and She- "riffs, were to be appointed by the Governor, with the advice of his "Majeſty in Council, the Governor alſo was to have a Negative "upon all Laws and Public Acts of the General Aſſembly and "Council. Laſtly, all Laws, when approved of by the Governor, "were to be tranſmitted to England, and to be void if diſallowed "of in the ſpace of three years."

Here are many reſtraints upon their original Privileges, but they ſubmitted to them, becauſe the main Point, *the Right of Legiſlation and Taxation*, was ſtill preſerved to their own *Parliament*, or *General Aſſembly*. Indeed, the *Governor's Negative*, and the *King's appointment*

of

of the Council, and all the chief Officers of State, were very conſiderable checks upon the Aſſembly; but theſe, on the other hand, were counterbalanced by the *Governor's depending entirely upon the Aſſembly for his Maintenance*. And they have always kept ſuch faſt hold of this dependence of the Governor upon them, that they have often refuſed to fix any certain Salary upon him, and when they have done it, it has been merely *Perſonal*, and *pro hâc vice* only, and with a *Salvo* that the Payment of it ſhould not be obligatory upon future Aſſemblies.

Upon the whole, the Conſtitution of the Government of New England appears to be this.

The General Aſſembly is the ſupreme Legiſlative Body of the Colony; in concurrence with the Governor, it impoſes Taxes, makes Grants, enacts Laws, and redreſſes Public Grievances of all kinds.—It conſiſts of the Magiſtrates, and a certain number of Repreſentatives, which form two Chambers, ſo nearly reſembling our Lords and Commons, that the conſent of a Majority of each is neceſſary, before any Bill can be preſented to the Governor for his aſſent.

This is confirmed by the following authentic Account, ſent to the Houſe of Lords by the Commiſſioners of Trade in the year 1733-4.

" There are three Charter Governments, of which the chief is " that *of Maſſachuſet's Bay*, commonly called *New England*: the " Conſtitution whereof is of a mixed Nature, the Power being di- " vided between the King and the People, in which the latter have " much the greateſt Share; for here the People do not only chuſe " the Aſſembly, but the Aſſembly chuſes the Council alſo; and the " Governor depends upon the Aſſembly for his annual Support.

" *Connecticut* and *Rhode-Iſland* are the other Charter Governments, " or rather Corporations, where almoſt the whole Power of the " Crown is delegated to the People, who each make an annual " Election of their Aſſembly, Council, and Governor; to the Ma- " jority of which Aſſemblies, and Governors reſpectively, being col- " lective Bodies, the Power of making Laws is granted, and, as their " Charters are worded, they can, and do make Laws without the " Governor's aſſent, and directly contrary to the opinions of their " Governors, who have no Negative Voice reſerved to them as " Governors in the ſaid Charter, and as the ſaid Governors are " choſen annually, their office generally expires before the King's " Approbation can be obtained, or any Security be taken for their " due obſervation of the Laws of Trade and Navigation, and they " hold or no Correſpondence with our Office.

" Theſe Colonies have the Power of making Laws for their better " Government and Support, provided they be not repugnant to the " Laws of Great Britain, nor detrimental to the Mother Country. " And theſe Laws, when they have regularly paſſed the Council and " Aſſembly of any Province, and received the Governor's aſſent, be- " come valid in that Province; yet they remain repealable by his Majeſty

" Majesty in Council, upon any just complaint, and do not acquire " a perpetual force unless they are confirmed by the King in " Council.

" But there are some exceptions to this last Rule, in the Proprie- " tary and Charter Governments ; thus, in the *Massachuset's Bay*, if " their Laws are not repealed within three years after they have been " presented to his Majesty for his approbation, or disallowance, " they are not repealable by the Crown after that time : and the " Provinces of *Connecticut* and *Rhode-Island* are not under any obli- " gation, by their respective Constitutions, to return authentic " Copies of their Laws to the Crown, for approbation or disallow- " ance, or to give any account of their Proceedings. There is also " this singularity in the Governments of *Connecticut* and *Rhode-Island*, " that their Laws are not repealable by the Crown ; but the validity " of them depends upon their being, not contrary, but as near as " may be, agreeable to the Laws of England." Thus far the Report of the Commissioners of Trade.

New York, being a Conquest made by the *Crown* from the *Dutch*, its constitution differs in many points from that of the rest of the Colonies, and they look on themselves to be so much a separate People from the rest, that they have generally refused to act in conjunction with the *Colonists of Massachuset's Bay*, even against the Savages. In the year 1730, the City of *New York* had a Royal Charter from King *George* II. much in the Form of the Charters of Corporations in England ; and this, I think, is the first Instance of the kind in *America*. They have 400 regular Troops maintained for them at the King's charge. Their Governor is not only appointed, but *commissioned* by the King ; whereas, in those called the *Charter Governments*, the King only *nominates* the Governor, but gives him no *Commission*.

Having before considered the Nature of our claim to Dominion in *North America*, with regard to the Natives, or Savages, as we call them ; it will be proper here to add a word or two on the same Subject concerning the *Colonists* that are settled there.

We have seen above that the first effectual Settlement there was made by a Set of *Republican Dissenters* (called Puritans in those days) who had fled to other Countries from the Persecution which they complained was raised against them in England, who agreed to retire to *America*, where, in the course of a few years, they were joined by great numbers of their persecuted Brethren ; for a kind of Salvo, such as it was, they did indeed procure Patents from England ; but these Patents appear to me, so far as the King was concerned in them, to be no more than an exemption from any Prosecution of Outlawry for deserting the Realm. For our Kings, finding that these turbulent Republican Spirits would never be quiet under a Monarchical Government, were glad to get rid of them at any Rate,

and therefore gave them leave to retire to another Country, where they would be at Liberty to follow their own Religious Opinions, and to enjoy their own Republican Principles, and it is very obvious to suppose that they all cried out with *Teucer*,

Quo nos cunque feret melior Fortuna * Parente
Ibimus, O Socii, Comitesque.

When so many thousands of French Protestants fled into England from the Persecution of *Louis* XIV. if the French King had claimed them all as his Subjects, and the Places where they were settled as parts of his Dominions; our Answer, I trust, would have been, that, *when they settled in England they became the Subjects of the Crown of England.* By the same Rule, the English Dissenters, who fled from the Persecution which they complained of in England, became the Subjects of those *American Kings* in whose Country they settled.—And when they had, either by Purchase, or by the free Gift of those Kings, acquired Property in Lands there, and the Kings of the Country claimed no Sovereignty over them, they became their own Masters, and formed themselves into Civil Societies upon their own Principles.

In this case the Argument of *Protection* cannot, with any Propriety, be used to enforce absolute *obedience*, because the Colonies, as we have seen above, were settled at the expence of *private Adventurers*, and have defended themselves in general against the *Natives*, without any assistance from the *Crown of England.* And as to the Attacks which the *Crown of England* has made at different times upon the *French* Settlements in *America*, when we have been at War with *France*, they were made on a *National*, not on a *Colonial* account; and yet the *Colonists*, especially those of *New England*, have always given their assistance with such a noble Spirit, as is scarce to be matched in History. To pass over the rest, in the year 1748, the *New Englanders*, by raising, arming, and transporting, at their own expence, four thousand men, took *Louisbourgh*, which gave Peace to Europe, for at the Peace of *Aix la Chappelle*, the restitution of this Place to the French proved an equivalent for all their Successes on the Continent of Europe, in which the *Colonies* had no concern. On this occasion, indeed, some money was given to them, in the name of compensation, but it was greatly short of their Expences; besides this, they were deprived of the benefit they might have received, as an *English Colony*, by retaining that important Conquest of their own making. And in the French War which was concluded in the year 1762, they exerted the same glorious Spirit against the common Enemy, and greatly contributed to that extension of Territory, which was ceded by the *French* to the *Crown*, (not to the Colonists) *of Great Britain.* And these are the Men whose Throats we are now cutting.

* i. e. Our Mother Country.

'Tis

'Tis true, they have often acknowledged themſelves to be the Subjects of the *Crown of England*, but theſe acknowledgements have always been conditional, that *their Rights and Privileges ſhould be preſerved to them*. We have ſeen above that the chief of their Rights conſiſted in their having a Power to make Laws for their better Government and Support, that is a Power of *Legiſlation* and *Taxation*; for a Government cannot be *ſupported* without *Taxes*, and the maintenance of theſe Rights was their *Original Compact*, a Term of which ſome people are very fond, it was the expreſs Covenant upon which they undertook to cultivate that Wilderneſs. Their Laws, indeed, have not a perpetual Force till they have been confirmed by the *King in Council*; but they have an immediate Force in the Province that makes them, as ſoon as they have paſſed the Aſſembly and Council (which is their Parliament) with the Governor's aſſent, and they continue in Force till they are repealed by the *King in Council*; and in ſome of them, if the King does not repeal their laws within a limited time, he cannot do it afterwards; in others he cannot repeal them at all, if they are not contrary to the Laws of England, if they are, they are void of courſe; whereas the Laws made by the *Engliſh Parliament* have no Force at all, till the *King* has ſigned the bills.

From hence it is plain that theſe *two Branches of the Britiſh Empire* have *Legiſlative Powers*, diſtinct and ſeparate from each other *, and that theſe diſtinct and ſeparate *Legiſlative Powers* are united under *one Head*, which Head is *the King*, and *the King only*: for I never heard it ſuppoſed, or pretended that the *Engliſh Parliament* had any thing to do with *American Laws*, except ſuch as relate to certain *reſtrictions upon their Trade*, and the general Laws of *Trade and Navigation*, and all the *Engliſh Acts* paſſed concerning the Colonies have, till of late, related to thoſe Subjects. But the *internal Policy* of their Government, and their *inland Taxes*, are by their Original Conſtitution, and have been always, till of late, acknowledged to be in their own hands.

So, the Marks of their dependence on the *Mother Country*, conſiſt in their making no Laws that are repugnant to the Laws of Great Britain; their ſubmitting the Laws which they do make to be repealed by the King, in ſuch Manner and Form as is above ſet forth, and their ſubmitting to ſuch reſtrictions as are laid upon their Trade by the *Britiſh Parliament*, and to the *Britiſh Laws* concerning Trade and Navigation in general.

* This is no fictitious, chimerical, refined Strain of Policy, but appears plainly from the above Hiſtorical Extracts, to be an inconteſtable Fact, it is the very Caſe of Ireland; and there is ſomething analogous to it in the daily Practice in England; for if the ſame Perſon be Lord of two diſtinct Manours, he muſt hold a ſeparate Court at each of them, and if the Cuſtoms of the two Manours differ, though he be Lord of both, he cannot alter thoſe Cuſtoms, ſo as to make one Manour be governed by the Cuſtoms of the other; for though his Tenants hold their Lands *ad voluntatem Domini*, yet it is always *ſecundum conſuetudinem Manerii*.

Though many Alterations have been made in the the original Conſtitution of their Government, particularly by the Charter of *King William* III. they have acquieſced, though perhaps unwillingly, in them all ſo long as the two grand Points of *internal Legiſlation* and *Taxation* were preſerved to them. But when the *Parliamentary* part of the Britiſh Legiſlature came to *encroach* upon the *Parliamentary* part of the American Legiſlature (for their General Aſſembly and Council are their Parliament) by impoſing *internal Taxes* upon them, and making Laws concerning the *internal Policy of their Government*, without their Conſent, the Americans looked on theſe *Encroachments* as *Acts of Oppreſſion*; and if they are right in this, we have no reaſon to call them *Rebels*, becauſe, in this State of the Caſe, their Oppoſition and Reſiſtance is founded on the ſame Principles on which the Reſiſtance and Oppoſition made to *King James* II. was founded; and, I truſt, no man at this time of Day, will venture to call that Reſiſtance *a Rebellion*, which paved the Way to the *Glorious Revolution*, to which our preſent Government owes its Eſtabliſhment. And whatever any Man's private and ſpeculative Opinion of the *Revolution* may be, it muſt be univerſally agreed on all Sides, that the *Miniſters of the preſent Government*, which is founded upon it, ought ſtrictly to adhere to the Principles of it in their Practice, becauſe any Attempt to carry on a *Revolution Government* upon *Anti-revolution* Principles would be abſurd; and becauſe, the Concluſion that would naturally follow from ſetting up *Anti-Revolution* Principles is—*What I dare not name*: and the *Americans* plainly ſhew that they look on the Meaſures lately taken againſt them to be *Anti-revolutional*, by their branding the Promoters of them with the name of *Tories*.

While the *Americans* were left to enjoy the two Articles of their *Conſtitutional Rights* abovementioned, they were as Loyal Subjects as any that our King, or any King in Europe has, or ever had; let us therefore turn our Eyes to ſee what has made them otherwiſe at preſent.

The *Stamp Act* was the firſt Step; which being the Impoſition of an *inland Duty*, muſt be allowed to be a violation of their *Conſtitutional Privileges*; and though this Act was repealed when the ill Effects of it began to appear, yet the Flame which it had lighted up was by no means quenched, eſpecially when freſh Fuel was immediately added to it, by an *additional Duty upon Tea*, (which though it may be within the Law, yet it was looked on by them, in their Heat at that time, to be no more than another Mode of encreaſing their Taxes to ſuch a Degree, as would equal the Burthen intended to be laid upon them by the *Stamp Act*) and by an ill-judged Invaſion of their *Judicial Rights*, by eſtabliſhing among them *new Courts of Judicature*, which they knew not before; and depriving their Criminals (accuſed of Treaſon) of the known Right of *a Jury of their own Countrymen and next Neighbours*, by ordering them, and of courſe, all the Witneſſes for

for and againſt them, to be brought into *England*, three thouſand miles from their Home, to take their Trials. Do not theſe Meaſures tend to the abolition of the *Legiſlative Power of the Colonies?*

Perhaps the *Americans* cannot be ſtrictly juſtified in every Step they have taken, for in all Quarrels there ſoon come to be Faults on both ſides; but the Aggreſſor, who ſtrikes the firſt Blow, muſt be anſwerable for all the Conſequences that happen afterwards.

It has been urged by ſome, in excuſe for our Proceedings, that our *Colonies* have long been meditating an Attempt to ſeparate themſelves entirely from the *Mother Country*; but as no Proof of this has been offered, it can amount to no more than a ſtrong Surmize; but to give it all the weight it will bear, we will ſuppoſe it to be true; and if it be true, it is a ſufficient Reaſon why our Miniſters ſhould with extreme Caution have avoided giving them their preſent Pretence for making ſuch an Effort, by pointing a Dagger againſt the very *Vitals of their Conſtitutional Rights*; a Thruſt which it might be reaſonably ſuppoſed they would endeavour to parry; but it is likewiſe reaſonable to ſuppoſe, from their paſt Conduct, that they never would have attempted to carry ſuch a Deſign as they are charged with into Execution, if that Thruſt had not been made.

I will not preſume to ſuppoſe that the *King's* having a Power to confirm, or diſallow *the Laws made by the American Parliaments* has too much the Air of *Prerogative* to be reliſhed by the Miniſters, though there may be People in the Kingdom who wiſh to ſee every Jewel, that has the leaſt Shade of that *Water*, plucked out of the Crown at all Events, and by any means whatever.

As to the reſt of the Colonies joining with the *New Englanders* on the preſent Occaſion, we ſhall have no reaſon to be ſurprized at it if we conſider, that in general the Bulk of their Inhabitants are *Republicans*, and *Diſſenters from the Church of England*; and though the Conſtitutions of thoſe of later Eſtabliſhment differ in many Reſpects from that of *New England*, yet they all have ſome Rights; and when they ſee ſuch large ſtrides taken to annihilate, as they think, the *Rights of New England*, it is very natural for them to ſuppoſe that it will, one Day or other, come to their turn to ſuffer the ſame Fate: thus they act upon the old prudential Maxim of

——Tua res agitur cum proximus ardet.

This appears to me to be the true State of the Caſe between us and our *North American Colonies*: let us now take a little View of what we are doing on the Occaſion.

We are exerting all our own Force, both Naval and Military; we are ranſacking all Europe for Auxiliary Troops to aſſiſt us, to complete what? Why, the very thing that all Europe, who look on the Power and Grandeur of the Britiſh Empire with an envious Eye, have long been wiſhing to ſee compleated, *Our own Ruin*. It puts me in mind of a Story mentioned in the Spectator, of a Sign in London

London repreſenting two Men who had been at Law with each other; one of them was ſtark naked, and was wringing his Hands, and making great Signs of Lamentation, with a Label coming out of his Mouth, on which was wrote, *I've loſt my Cauſe! I've loſt my Cauſe!* The other was naked too, except a ragged Blanket that was wrapped about his Shoulders; he was capering, and dancing, and ſhewing all Signs of the greateſt Exultation and triumphant joy, and upon his Label was wrote, *I've gain'd my Cauſe! I've gain'd my Cauſe!* Thus, if our Miniſtry ſhould at laſt ſucceed to the utmoſt of their Wiſhes, if they ſhould arrive to the Honour and Glory of conquering *America* from our own Coloniſts, by whoſe Aſſiſtance we ſo lately conquered much the greateſt Part of it from the *French*, what will the Balance of the Account be? En et Ecce!

We ſhall have ſpent many Millions of Money: we ſhall have deſtroyed many thouſands of the King's braveſt and moſt loyal Subjects on both Sides; we ſhall have demoliſhed a great Number of fine Towns, and ruined the Inhabitants of them: we ſhall have depopulated, and laid waſte, a vaſt Tract of as fine Country as any in the World; we ſhall have ruined the Trade of that Country, and conſequently have ſunk ſo much of the Revenues of our own Crown as aroſe from it; we ſhall reduce to beggary all thoſe of our own Merchants and Manufacturers who depend upon it; we ſhall have greatly encreaſed our National Debt, and the Burthen of our Taxes, already too heavy for us to bear. When our Funds of Money and Men are thus exhauſted, we ſhall have rendered ourſelves liable to become an eaſy Prey to any powerful Nation of *Europe*, if any of them ſhould think it worth while to take our *laſt ragged Blanket* from us, when it is in ſuch a tattered Condition that it will ſcarce hang together, when it is ſo rent and torn that it cannot be mended again. Theſe are Evils from which we may not recover in a Century, perhaps never.

Per Contra.

If our Arms in *America* ſhould be crowned with all the Succeſs that our Miniſters can wiſh or hope for; we ſhall have, as above, the Glory of conquering our own *Coloniſts*: of puniſhing the Dogs for their obſtinate adherence to their *Conſtitutional Rights*, by depriving them of the Benefit of all the Improvements which they and their Anceſtors have made in the Colonies in two hundred Years, of eſtabliſhing our *Nominal Dominion* over wild Foreſts and deſolate Plains. Bravo! Bravo! But if, on the other hand, our Coloniſts ſhould, either by dint of their own Force, or by the Aſſiſtance of foreign Aid, get the better of us, we ſhan't have a Blanket left.

Do not theſe Things look as if the Diſſolution of our Empire was near at Hand? for,

Quos Jupiter vult perdere dementat priùs.

I would not be underſtood to mean, by any thing I have ſaid, that I am a Friend to *Republican Principles*. I deteſt them, I have no Connection with any *Party*, nor even Acquaintance with any *Perſon* con-

concern'd, or particularly intereſted, in this Diſpute: but the Rule by which I ſquare both my Actions and my Sentiments is that Golden one of FIAT JUSTITIA to all the World; a Rule which concerns *Publick Miniſters*, as well as private Perſons.

Let, therefore, every friend to *Great Britain* inceſſantly pray to Heaven that the Eyes of our Miniſters may be open'd: that they may diſcern that it will be no diſcredit to them, no impeachment of their honour, to retract a falſe ſtep: that they may, by a ſpeedy accommodation with the *Colonies*, prevent the falling of that Sword, which hangs over our heads, ſuſpended by a ſingle hair: before the Brazen Head cries out,

Poſthac non tibi tempus erit.

Copy of a Letter from Sir Edward Hawke, now Lord Hawke, to the Duke d'Aiguillon, dated Royal George, Quiberon Bay 12th of Dec. 1759.

'I had the honour of your Grace's letter relative to the cartel, &c. the 10th inſtant. In anſwer to it I would obſerve, that my demand of the officers and ſeamen, together with the Rolle d'Equipage of the Heros, was nothing more than what I ſuppoſed your Grace would, in reaſon and equity, have complied with. Had any captain of a Britiſh ſhip under my command ſtruck his colours, and ſurrendered to an enemy, and afterwards run away with the ſhip in contempt of the laws of war, I would have delivered him up to the officer he had ſo baſely injured, to be dealt with as his cowardly behaviour deſerved. Your Grace will obſerve I do not ſupplicate; I am not accuſtomed to that language with an open and avowed enemy; I demand thoſe officers and ſeamen, not for my own advantage, but in behalf of the brave ſeamen, &c. who have a right to claim my protection and interpoſition in this matter; for by the bounty of our king, ſuch prizes are the property of the captors, and therefore it is not injuring the crown of Great Britain to withhold them, but the gallant Britiſh ſeamen, to whom the fleets of France have been compelled to yield the empire of the ſeas. I came from England about eight months ſince, to decide the fate of the two empires with Monſ. de Conflans. After deliberating ſo long before he ventured out, I am ſorry he had ſo little confidence in the juſtice of his cauſe, as to give me the trouble of chacing him near forty leagues upon your own coaſt, when we might have more fairly decided the matter in the open ſea, eſpecially as the fleet under the command of Monſ. de Conflans conſiſted of 23 ſail of the line, whilſt the Britiſh fleet was but 22. It was ſurely then *en gaité de cœur ſeulement*, not in earneſt, that your Grace was pleaſed to ſtile my enterpriſes irregular, and my attack on the fleet of France an unfair one. As to captain Ourry, he acted entirely by my orders, both in his endeavours to recover the guns of the Soleile Royale, and in what happened in conſequence of thoſe endeavours. But your Grace ſurely forgets the orders which you, yourſelf, was under, when you lay waiting for the arrival of that fleet, under whoſe protection you was to have embarked 40,000 men, to carry the

ſword

ſword with fire and devaſtation into every part of England and Ireland, where you might have proved victorious. I expect ſome bomb veſſels from England very ſoon; when they arrive, I will take a juſt revenge, by endeavouring to deſtroy every thing on the coaſt of France within their reach; and my only concern reſpecting the havock which has been made of the fleet under the command of Monſ. de Conflans, is, that by their ſhameful flight, they prevented the Britiſh arms from ſhining with ſo much luſtre, as they otherwiſe (under divine providence) would aſſuredly have ſhone. As I have the honour to ſerve under one of the beſt of kings, and in the ſervice of a nation who never forget the man who ſerves his country faithfully; duty, gratitude, and inclination, compel me to uſe every means to aggrandiſe and gratify, both the one and the other. With theſe ſentiments, and under ſuch influence, it will be ever my chiefeſt happineſs to be eſteemed their faithful and obedient ſervant. Abſtracted from every thing which has the leaſt tendency to perſonal animoſity, I remain, with proper reſpect to the Duke d'Aiguillon, as an individual,

Your Grace's very humble ſervant,

EDWARD HAWKE.

After capt. Payne, had been allowed to carry off proviſions from Barbadoes, for the uſe of the army at Boſton, (*ſee page* 367 *of the preceding volume*) it was found, upon a ſtrict examination, that the ſtock remaining was only ſufficient for the conſumption of the iſland for ſix weeks. The general aſſembly alarmed, unanimouſly agreed to a petition to the king, and an addreſs to the governor. The petition has been delivered by the agent to the Secretary of State for America to be laid before his Majeſty. The following is a copy: The purport of the addreſs to the governor was, to deſire he would grant no more licences to export proviſions.

BARBADOES.

To the KING's moſt Excellent Majeſty.

The humble petition of the Repreſentatives of the people of your Majeſty's Iſland of Barbadoes, in their General Aſſembly aſſembled.

Moſt gracious Sovereign,

'WE your Majeſty's loyal ſubjects, the repreſentatives of the iſland of Barbadoes, truly ſenſible of the felicity we enjoy under your Majeſty's benign government, and firmly attached to your illuſtrious Houſe; grateful for the ſignal marks of favour and beneficence beſtowed upon our ſettlement from its infancy, and more particularly of late conferred upon us; and impreſſed with a juſt and lively ſenſe of the excellence of our glorious conſtitution; and reſolved under all circumſtances, to manifeſt as much as in us lies, an undeviating veneration thereto, humbly beg leave to approach your royal perſon, and to expreſs to your Majeſty our cordial ſatisfaction, that through your numerous and illuſtrious offſpring, the happineſs of your ſubjects is likely to be inſured and perpetuated, and the great and amiable virtues of your Majeſty tranſmitted to poſterity.

'Aſſured that our royal and humane Sovereign is always diſpoſed to make his ſubjects as happy as they can be, and that diſtance of ſituation no way leſſens your gracious care, we beg leave to repreſent the diſtreſs already in ſome meaſure fallen upon us, and in proſpect threatening to overwhelm the inhabitants of this your loyal colony. We have, ſir, near fourſcore thouſand black, and twelve thouſand white people daily to ſupport. Our ground proviſions (the internal reſource) have failed for the want of ſeaſons; and

and the ſtock of ſalt proviſions on hand will not laſt many weeks, and we are without the hope of future foreign reſources.

"Under the diſmal apprehenſions of an approaching famine, we look up to your Majeſty as to the father of his people; and having laid our caſe before you, will not, Sire, treſpaſs on your time, by expatiating on the dreadful conſequences that haunt our imaginations: it is enough to point out our ſituation, and to implore your Majeſty's interpoſition; and through you, that of the legiſlature of Great Britain; and your loyal colony will ever pray for the ſtability of your government and counſels.

We are, may it pleaſe your Majeſty, your Majeſty's moſt dutiful, loyal, and faithful ſubjects and ſervants,

JOHN GAY ALLEYNE, Speaker, &c, &c."

May 10. This day Lord Viſcount Midleton, Colonel Barre, and Edmund Burke, Eſq. preſented the following petition to his Majeſty at St. James's.

To the KING's moſt excellent Majeſty.

The humble and dutiful petition of the Freemen, Freeholders, Citizens, Merchants, Traders, and Proteſtant Inhabitants of the city of Cork.

WE, your Majeſty's moſt dutiful and loyal ſubjects, the freemen, freeholders, citizens, merchants, traders, and proteſtant inhabitants of the city of Cork, beg leave to approach your Majeſty with a ſtate of our feelings on the preſent criſis of our foreign and domeſtic affairs; conſcious, that however dubious the ſucceſs, and whatever the event, it is the privilege and duty of a loyal, manly, and free people, to conduct truth to the foot of the throne, where her voice may be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe of corruption, intereſt and adulation.

We think ourſelves particularly called upon, at this time, to declare our ſentiments, leſt your Majeſty ſhould be influenced by an addreſs now ſurreptitiouſly preparing here, purporting to be the act of this corporation, and affecting to convey the real ſenſe of this ancient, loyal, and opulent city.

The preſent unnatural diſpute with America, originally grounded on the moſt arbitrary claims of former miniſters, progreſſively ſuſtained by the uſurpations of ſucceeding adminiſtrations, and moſt impoliticallly carried on by the preſent, cannot but fill us with the moſt gloomy and alarming apprehenſions. In the purſuit of an inexpedient, unneceſſary, and perhaps illegal power of taxation, over a bold, numerous, experienced, free, and diſtant people, we have ſeen our armies defeated, our fame tarniſhed, and our revenue exhauſted; our American trade totally deſtroyed, which formed the broadeſt baſis of Britiſh wealth and proſperity; our Weſt-India trade dependent on America for ſupplies of proviſions and lumber, mouldering into ruin; and our African commerce, intimately connected with that of the Weſt-Indies, almoſt totally annihilated; our national honour lowered to the duſt by an introduction of foreign mercenaries to fight our domeſtic quarrels, on the moſt unequitable and diſadvantageous terms; and the glory of the Britiſh arms for ever ſullied, by the newly adopted mode of piratical war, which in the deſtruction of many unoffending maritime cities of America, diſplays a ſpirit of dark revenge and gloomy depredation, unprecedented in the annals of any enlightened age or poliſhed nation.

Whatever may be the event of this expenſive and dreadful conteſt, it muſt be alike fatal to the victor and the vanquiſhed; nothing can remain to either but poverty, ruin, and deſolation.

As members of your Majeſty's widely extended dominions, we muſt ſhare in this general maſs of public calamity; as members of this opulent and commercial city, and natives of this maritime and lately riſing kingdom, we find ourſelves moſt particularly intereſted; our linen trade, the great ſupport of the nation, is in imminent danger, through the wants of its uſual marts, and the extreme dearneſs of flax ſeed, now no longer ſupplied from the colonies, but with great difficulty, and at a prodigious expence, ſcantily imported from the northern parts of Europe. The lumber trade, which enabled us to carry on the export of proviſions from our ſouthern provinces, is almoſt entirely ruined. Commerce is a mighty chain, in which the weakneſs of a ſingle link deſtroys the union and ſtrength of the whole. Thus have all the other parts of our commerce ſenſibly declined, by their connection with thoſe already enumerated.

We cannot paſs in ſilence the ſtate of this now defenceleſs kingdom, deprived of almoſt all its ſtipulated force, and left an eaſy prey to the firſt invader. When we throw our eyes on the continent, and behold the prodigious power and warlike preparations of our moſt dangerous neighbours, and uſual enemies, we cannot but ſhudder at the humiliating compariſon.

We thus, Sire, have preſumed to ſubmit to your royal and benignant conſideration, a ſmall part of the manifold grievances under which we labour. One of the great axioms of our law, places an eaſy remedy in your Majeſty's hands, to be employed for the national intereſt, without any injury to the prerogative, or any diminution of your Majeſty's perſonal honour. "The king can do no wrong," is that great rule we allude to, which preſerving the ſovereign dignity from inſult, conſults the rights of freedom without the danger of anarchy, and by transferring faults from the ſupreme executive power, to thoſe officially employed in adminiſtration, determines a mode of reſponſibility, which has ever proved the ſureſt ſafeguard of this often threatened conſtitution.

Under new miniſters new meaſures may be beſt adopted, without inconſiſtency, and with the utmoſt attention to every juſt and lawful prerogative. The ſtate may thus be, as it often has been, ſaved by the intelligent, the incorrupt, and the intrepid, from that deſtruction into which it is plunged by the daſtardly, the venal, and the ignorant.

In your Majeſty's paternal attention to your people's welfare, in your wiſdom, juſtice, and clemency, we place the utmoſt confidence; and now moſt humbly ſupplicate your Majeſty to remove thoſe evils of which we complain; to direct that the ſword may be ſheathed, that our commerce may be reſtored; and that œconomy, union, peace, and liberty may be permanently re-eſtabliſhed through all parts of the empire.

[Signed by five hundred of the principal citizens, freeholders, merchants, &c]

Falmouth, May 9. Yeſterday arrived here the Elizabeth, Campbell, from Philadelphia. Among other paſſengers who came to England in her was Major Preſton upon his parole, who commanded at St. John's, when taken by General Montgomery.

Several

Several perſons who came paſſengers in other veſſels travelled through the American continent above a thouſand miles, by whom we are informed that New York, Charles-Town in South-Carolina, and Savannah in Georgia, are evacuated by almoſt all the inhabitants except the military; that there is not a woman or a child to be met with in any of the ſtreets, the whole of them being retired into the country, to the diſtance of five, ten, fifteen, or twenty miles, where they live three or four families together in one houſe, according to its ſize; that all the men capable of bearing arms are furniſhed therewith, and are ready to take the field at the ſhorteſt notice; that all the roads on the continent are ſtrongly guarded, ſo that a perſon cannot go two miles out of any town without a paſs, which they are very cautious of granting; that the poſt is regularly eſtabliſhed through the continent, by which they receive the earlieſt accounts of all the tranſactions in the reſpective provinces; that they appear to be very unanimous, and determined to defend themſelves to the laſt extremity; that they had advice of the troops coming from England, and are prepared to receive them, which is the principal reaſon of their vacating the towns on the coaſt, and removing their families up into the country, it being their intention to diſpute the landing of the troops in the firſt place, which if they cannot effect they will burn down their towns immediately, that the troops may not have ſhelter therein, and will retire into the woods, cut off all the ſupplies of proviſions from the country, and diſpute the matter with the king's troops there.

We are farther informed that the Indians in Georgia have joined the Provincials, one of them being wounded by a ſhot from on board the men of war in the above ſkirmiſh, the others ſay they are determined to have revenge as ſoon as they can meet with any of the king's troops.

A veſſel arrived at Briſtol from Savannah in Georgia, which ſhe left about the middle of March laſt, and brings advices, of which the following is the ſubſtance: "That the tranſports with marines on board, which General Howe ſent there for rice, and other proviſions, arrived; that the people would not permit them to be furniſhed with a ſingle article; in conſequence the marines attempted to land in their boats, with a deſign to carry off ſome veſſels that were lying in the harbour loaded: but meeting with a very ſmart attack, were compelled to make a precipitate retreat to their tranſports, upon which the loaded ſhips (which belonged to ſuſpicious perſons) were inſtantly deſtroyed by fire. One was called the Inverneſs, and valued at a conſiderable ſum. The veſſel which brought this intelligence to Briſtol, has brought only 20 barrels of rice. She unexpectedly got out of the harbour in the night."

Another account. There were ſeven ſhips burnt at Savannah, not five, as mentioned in ſome accounts. General Howe ſent Major Grant and Captain Maitland, with four tranſports and 200 marines, to get proviſions. The Carolinians hearing of it, ſent 500 men to aſſiſt the Georgians. A battery was erected, which fired ſmartly upon the tranſports as ſoon as they arrived in Savannah harbour. Finding they could not land, they came round an iſland in the night to get at ſome veſſels in the harbour that were coming to England, in order to get proviſions from them; but the Georgia militia, who were aſſembled,

and the Carolinians, kept a continual fire upon them, and at length burnt the ſhips; ſo they were entirely diſappointed.

Savannah, Feb. 14. "His Excellency the Governor, with his family left this place laſt Sunday night, and went on board his Majeſty's ſhip Scarborough lying at Tybee.'

In Provincial Congreſs, Savannah, Feb. 17. 1776. Reſolved, That any perſon who ſhall refuſe to take the certificates iſſued by order of the Congreſs, in payment of any debt, ſuch perſon ſhall be precluded from any benefit intended by the regulations of Congreſs with reſpect to ſecuring the payment of juſt debts, of which the parochial committees are deſired to take notice. Reſolved, That any perſon who ſhall attempt to depreciate the value of ſuch certificates, ſhall be deemed inimical, and thenceforth precluded from protection.

A true copy from the minutes,

Edward Langworthy, Sec.

Charleſtown, March 8. We are authorized to inform the public, that regular conſtitutional poſts are now eſtabliſhed, under the authority of the Congreſs, throughout all the united Colonies.

The following is a copy of a letter, juſt received by expreſs, from the Council of Safety of Georgia.

In the Council of Safety,

Savannah, March 4, 1776.

'Gentlemen

'The intimate connection between this and your province, in a particular manner renders it neceſſary to acquaint you with the occurrences in the former, ſince the date of our laſt; to which, and the diſpatch preceding, we refer you.

'Our diſpoſitions in the evening of the 2d, were ſuch as appeared to our officers the moſt likely to prevent the landing of our enemy; and ſo as, if they ſhould make their landing good, either above or below the town, to prevent their getting in; however, notwithſtanding our vigilance, they, by colluſion with the maſters and others on board the merchant ſhipping, which hawled near the ſhore of Hutchinſon's iſland in the night-time, got on board theſe ſhips, about four o'clock yeſterday morning; to the number, as far as we are competent to judge from the obſervations we made, and the intelligence we received, of between two and three hundred, where they affected to conceal themſelves.

'We had our fears reſpecting theſe ſhipping, and therefore kept a good watch upon them; but it was impoſſible for centinels on this ſhore, to deſcry them in boarding from the other, the veſſels being betwixt.

'Captain Rice, who commanded a boat of obſervation, was ſent on board the ſhipping about nine o'clock to order the rigging on ſhore, and was, without any noiſe, or the ſmalleſt knowledge of us, kidnapped,—This we did not know till about half an hour afrerwards: two ſailors, under pretence of coming on ſhore for cloaths, gave information of the troops being on board the ſhipping, and of Rice's being taken. About three hundred men were then immediately marched to Yamacraw, oppoſite the ſhipping, with three four pounders, and threw up a breaſt-work. The armed ſchooner Hinchinbrook, of 14 guns, with a number of men on board, which, with others, went up the back river, in the afternoon of the day preceding, about this time ſet ſail down the ſouth river, with intent, no doubt, of covering the landing of the troops, from on board the merchant ſhipping: but being continually fired at by two companies of rifleмen who were placed in ambuſcade, ſhe was obliged to come very ſlowly, and often came to, and returned a very ſmart fire at every place where

where the riflemen fired from, until the tide was ſpent, and ſhe could not go down. During the courſe of this firing, only one of our men got wounded, and that ſlightly in the thigh; but on board, ſeveral were ſeen to fall.

'In town we had exhibited a ſtill more intereſting ſcene. We found the officers and men clamorous, about the capture and detention of Rice; and two Gentlemen, Lieutenant Daniel Roberts, of the St. John's Rangers, and Mr. Raymond Demere, of St. Andrew's pariſh, ſolicited, and were permitted to go on board, to demand a ſurrender of Rice and his people. They accordingly diveſted themſelves of arms, and were rowed by a negro on board a veſſel, in which were Captain Barclay, the Commodore, and Major Grant; and theſe officers, contrary to all the principles which cement ſociety, and govern mankind, immediately arreſted our deputies, and yet detain them as priſoners. We waited with anxious expectation for near half an hour, when we demanded our deputies, by the help of a trumpet, without getting any other but inſulting anſwers; whereupon we fired two four pounders directly into them; and then they informed us, that they would ſend an anſwer in writing; which they preſently after did, ſigned by Lieutenant Roberts and Mr. Demere, purporting, that if we would ſend two of the perſons in whom the people moſt confided, they would treat with them.

'Capt. Screven of the St. John's rangers, and Capt. Baker of the St. John's riflemen, chagrined, no doubt, the former particularly, on account of his Lieutenant, by detention of our deputies, took about a dozen of our riflemen in a boat, and rowed directly under the ſtern of Captain Inglis, in whoſe veſſel were a great part of the ſoldiery, and, in peremptory terms, demanded the deputies, and were anſwered, after one ſhot from Col. Baker, by a diſcharge, down directly upon them, of near two hundred ſhot, both from ſwivels and ſmall arms; which was kept up while they were in reach: the Captains and men in the boat, not in the ſmalleſt degree confuſed, or even perhaps diſappointed by the attack, fired three rifles, moſt of them three ſeveral times, as they ſay, not without execution: and wonderful to tell, not a man of them was killed; one man only received a ſlug in the fleſhy part of his ſhoulder, which was immediately cut out, without the ſmalleſt inconvenience or danger. The ſpectators all declare, as we now do, that ſuch a providential deliverance has not yet been known.

'This unmanly attack, upon a few men in an open boat, produced a general fire from our field pieces and intrenchments; and as ſmart a return from two four pounders and ſeveral ſwivels from the ſhipping, which laſted from about twelve o'clock to four; and although they often fired langridge, which continually whiſtled about our men, not a ſingle man was even touched; but we have no doubt, a number of the enemy met with a worſe fate, as they were ſeen frequently to fall.

'About four o'clock we called a council, and determined to have the veſſels immediately burnt, and iſſued orders to Col. M'Intoiſh accordingly: whereupon the Inverneſs, late Capt. M'Gillivlay, loaded with rice and deer-ſkins, was ſet on fire, and cut looſe. Upon this, the ſoldiers, in the moſt laughable confuſion, got aſhore in the marſh, while our riflemen and field-pieces, with grape-ſhot, were inceſſantly galling them. The ſhipping were now alſo in confuſion; ſome got up the river, under cover of the armed ſchooner, while others caught the flame, and, as night approached, exhibited a ſcene, as they paſſed and repaſſed

repaſſed with the tide, which, in any but the preſent times, would be truly horrible, but now a ſubject only of gratulation and applauſe.

'The ſhips of Capt. Inglis and Wardell, neither got up the river, or on fire: they were ordered on ſhore, and now are priſoners of Captain Screven in the country, and their veſſels brought down cloſe into a wharf. They were permitted to write to Capt. Barclay in the evening, to inform him of their ſituation, and to requeſt an exchange of priſoners, which the latter peremptorily refuſed.

'We have thus given you a particular detail of things, as they really happened, to prevent the belief of any erroneous intelligence; and, from which you will be competent to judge of our ſituation.

'Col. M'Intoſh laid before the board, a reſolution of your Congreſs to aid us, accompanied by a letter from Mr. Lowndes; and we are very glad you have determined to afford us farther aſſiſtance. We wiſh it may arrive in time.

By order of the Council of Safety,
WILLIAM EWEN, Preſident.

To the Hon. the Council of Safety for South Carolina.

Publiſhed by order of the Congreſs,
PETER TIMOTHY, Sec.

Extract of a letter from a Gentleman in the Weſt Indies, to his friend in New York, dated Feb. 14.

'We have juſt heard that a brig and a ſloop from ſome part of America, laden with lumber, are taken by one of the Engliſh cruiſers cloſe in with St. Pierre, Martinico. This conduct enraged the French General, who immediately gave orders for one of his frigates to cruiſe and protect every American veſſel within their limits.'

Extract of a letter from Charles-Town, South Carolina, to a merchant in London, dated March 12.

'Yeſterday a very ſharp engagement happened off this place, between an Engliſh frigate and two French ſhips of 20 guns each, that were laden with implements of war for the Provincial army. The Captain of the Engliſh frigate inſiſted on examining the Frenchmen, which they refuſing, an engagement enſued which laſted about an hour and a half, when the frigate having her maſts ſhot away, ceaſed firing; and the other two veſſels put in here and landed their cargoes. There are now in this port four tranſports, which were taken by one of our armed veſſels of war.'

London, May 11. Laſt night the miniſtry received advice that the packet diſpatched by Lord Dunmore, with intelligence and letters from his Lordſhip, Governor Martin, &c. &c. was loſt off Scilly. The diſpatches are all loſt, but the crew are ſaved. She met General Burgoyne not far from Newfoundland, all well, and nothing material.

Government have received advice that Commodore Hopkins has taken New Providence, one of the Bahama iſlands; and that Governor Brown eſcaped with great hazard on board a ſmall ſchooner, and is arrived at St. Auguſtine.

A letter from Cadiz, March 12, ſays, 'Anglo-American ſhips frequently enter this as well as other ports of Spain, laden with the productions of the Britiſh Colonies. At preſent the differences between them and Great Britain are of ſenſible advantage to our commerce.'

Bruſſels, April 29. An ordinance has been publiſhed here, prohibiting the ſupplying the Engliſh Colonies in America with warlike ſtores, and alſo the exportation, during the term of one year, of warlike ſtores from the ſea-ports; of which the following is a tranſlation.

Maria Thereſa, &c. &c. To all to whom theſe preſents ſhall come, greeting. Our moſt dearly beloved Brother, the

the King of Great Britain having required Us to take proper Measures for preventing the Subjects of the Provinces under our dominions in the Low Countries, from furnishing Succours to the inhabitants of the English Colonies in America, actually in rebellion against their Mother Country; and as, in consequence of the friendship and good understanding subsisting between Us and his Majesty, We are desirous to testify to him our zeal to second views which so greatly interest the good of his service; We have, by advice, &c. ordered and decreed, and do order and decree, the points and articles following.

Article I. We forbid all our subjects, of what rank and condition soever, to furnish, directly or indirectly, by their own ships, or by foreign ships, any succour to the Americans, subjects of Great Britain, in artillery, arms, powder, flints, or other ammunition, or implements or instruments of war, under pain to the offenders of the confiscation of such effects, and a fine of 1000 florins, to be paid by the Captain or Owner, whose ship may be detained or sold for the recovery of the said fine.

Article II. We forbid provisionally, during the term of one year, under the same penalties, the exportation of every kind of arms, ammunition, instruments or implements of war, from our seaports, without a special licence from our Council of Finances, which shall not be granted but on examination of the case, and taking the necessary precautions to ascertain the destination of those effects, and to prevent their being transported to the English Colonies in America. This we give in Command, &c. [*Gazette.*]

Philadelphia, March 11. On Saturday arrived here Baron de Woodkle, formerly a general officer in the Prussian service.

Dr. Franklin has resigned his seat in the Assembly of Pennsylvania (M Rittenhouse is chosen in his stead being appointed by the Congress to go on an embassy to Canada.

Five thousand Provincial troops are gone to Canada.

General Arnold is raised to the rank of Major-general, and is to command in Canada.

General Lee is to command in Virginia.

John Dickenson, Esq; has joined the troops at New York, with a battalion of 1000 men from this city.

Tuesday last were brought to this city two brass field-pieces, cast at New York.—One of our regimen ts is landed on Nassau Island, or Long Island.—The Colonels, Armstrong, Thompson, Lewis, Howe, Moore, and Lord Sterling, are appointed Brigadier-generals.

Governor Franklin of New Jersey, has retired on board one of the King's ships off New York.

In Congress, February 28, 1776.

Resolved, That the committee of inspection and observation for the counties, districts or towns assigned for the residence of prisoners, be empowered to superintend their conduct, and in cases of gross misbehaviour, to confine them, and report to the Congress the proceedings had on such occasions.

Feb. 29. Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed to contract for the making musquets and bayonets for the use of the United Colonies, and to consider of further ways and means of promoting and encouraging the manufacturing of fire arms in the United Colonies.

March 4. Resolved, That the restraint be taken off, which by a resolution of the 26th of last month, was laid upon vessels loading or loaded with produce for Great Britain, Ireland, or the British West Indies, in consequence of permission, granted for arms and ammunition imported into these Colonies.

March

March 9. Reſolved, That no oath by way of teſt be impoſed upon, exacted, or required, of any of the inhabitants of theſe Colonies, by any military officer.

CHARLES THOMSON, Sec.

Williamſburgh, Virginia, Jan. 25. The following is an extract of a letter from Lord Dunmore to General Howe, dated Nov. 30, 1775. 'I muſt inform you, that with our little corps I think we have done wonders. We have taken and deſtroyed above fourſcore pieces of ordnance, and, by landing in different parts of the country, we keep them in continual hot water; but as Capt. Leſlie tells me he means to give you particulars enough, ſhall ſay no more on that ſubject. Among the priſoners, we have taken one Oliver, Porter and Deane, two natives of Boſton, bringing in gunpowder to North Carolina. The latter was ſent from Boſton to influence the minds of the people, in which he has been but too ſucceſsful. He was taken from on board a ſchooner going from this place to the Weſtern Iſlands, to bring powder to this Colony; and the others have carried arms againſt his Majeſty in this province. I have ſent them more with a view of intimidating others than to puniſh them, as they expect here that ſo ſure as they are ſent to Boſton they are to be hanged. Robinſon is a delegate of our convention. Matthews was a Captain of their minute-men. Perhaps they may be of ſome uſe to you, in exchanging them for good men.—The ſloop not ſailing ſo ſoon as I expected, I have to inform you, that on the 14th inſt. I had information that a party of about a hundred of the North Carolina rebels had marched to the aſſiſtance of thoſe in this colony, and were poſted at a place called the Great-Bridge, a very eſſential paſs in the country. I accordingly embarked our little corps in boats, in the night of the 14th, with between twenty and 30 volunteers from Norfolk. We landed within four miles of the bridge, and arrived there a little after day-light; but to our great mortification, found the birds had flown the evening before. But hearing that a body between 2 and 300 of our rebels were within about ten miles of us, we determined to beat up their quarters, and accordingly proceeded about eight miles, when they fired on our advanced guards from the woods: on which I immediately ordered our people to ruſh in upon them, and at the ſame time ſent a party of the regulars, with the volunteers, to out-flank them. The enemy immediately fled on all quarters, and our people purſued them for a mile or more, killed a few, drove others into a creek, where they were drowned, and took nine priſoners, among whom is one of their Colonels. We only had one man wounded, who is recovering. I immediately upon this iſſued the incloſed proclamation; which has had a wonderful effect, as there are no leſs than 300 who have taken and ſigned the incloſed oath. The —— are alſo flocking in from all quarters, which I hope will oblige the rebels to diſperſe, to take care of their families and property; and had I but a few more men here, I would immediately march to Williamſburgh, my former place of reſidence, by which I ſhould ſoon compel the whole colony to ſubmit. We are in great want of ſmall arms; and if two or three field-pieces and their carriages could be ſpared, they would be of great ſervice to us; alſo ſome cartridge paper, of which not a ſheet is to be got in this country, and all our cartridges are expended.—Since the 19th of May laſt I have not received a ſingle line from any one in adminiſtration, though I have wrote volumes to them, in each of which I have prayed to be inſtructed, but to no purpoſe. I am therefore determined to go on doing the beſt of my power for

for his Majesty's service. I have accordingly ordered a regiment, called the Queen's own loyal regiment, of 500 men, to be raised immediately, consisting of a Lieutenant-Colonel Commandant, Major, and ten companies, each of which is to consist of one captain, two lieutenants, one ensign, and fifty privates, with non-commissioned officers in proportion.—You may observe, by my proclamation, that I offer freedom to the —— of all rebels that join me, in consequence of which there are between 2 and 300 already come in, and those I form into corps as fast as they come in, giving them white officers and non-commissioners in proportion.—And from these two plans, I make no doubt of getting men enough to reduce this colony to a proper sense of their duty. My next distress will be the want of arms, accoutrements, and money, all of which you may be able to relieve me from. The latter I am sure you can, as there are many merchants here who are ready to supply me, on my giving them bills on you, which you will have to withdraw, and give your own in their room. I hope this mode will be agreeable to you; it is the same that General Gage proposed. I have now, in order to carry on the recruiting business, victualling, cloathing, &c. drawn on you for 5000l. sterling, and have appointed a pay-master, who will keep exact accounts. I wish you would inform me, by the return of the sloop, what bounty money may be given to those who enlist. Having heard that 1000 chosen men belonging to the rebels, great part of whom were riflemen, were on their march to attack us here, or to cut off our provisions, I determined to take possession of the pass at the Great-Bridge, which secures us the greatest part of two counties, to supply us with provisions. I accordingly ordered a stockade to be erected there, which was done in a few days; and I put an officer and 25 men to garrison it, with some volunteers and ——, who have defended it against all the efforts of the rebels for these eight days past. We have killed several of their men, and I make no doubt we shall now be able to maintain our ground there; but should we be obliged to abandon it, we have thrown up an intrenchment on the land side of Norfolk, which I hope they never will be able to force. Here we are contending with only a very small part of a regiment, against the extensive colony of Virginia. If you would but spare me, for a few months, the 64th regiment now in the castle, and the remaining part of the 14th, I really believe we should reduce this colony to a proper sense of their duty."

Williamsburgh, Virginia Feb. 26. We are informed, that on Monday last, the Hon. Richard Corbin, Esq. came to this city, and the next day, with the entire approbation of the Committee of Safety, continued his journey to Norfolk, with intention to go on board the Dunmore, to have a conference with Lord Dunmore, on the subject of a letter his Lordship had written to Col. Corbin, containing some proposition to negociate an accommodation with Great Britain, and to receive letters which had come from London, and were to be delivered into his own hands.

The Mercury Frigate, Capt. Graham (formerly Macartney) having Gen. Clinton and Lord Percy on board, and two transports, with between 300 and 400 troops, chiefly light infantry of the 4th and 44th regiments, and a number of officers belonging to the 16th and 40th, besides some engineers, arrived at Hampton Road from Boston; since which they were joined by the King-

fiſher, and four or five tenders, off Hampton, and are bound for North-Carolina. They all ſailed this afternoon.

Williamſburgh, Feb. 27. Col. Corbin is returned from his fruitleſs journey to Lord Dunmore, who refuſed to give a commiſſion for holding an aſſembly, and only propoſed that the principal gentlemen in the country ſhould ſign propoſitions for an accommodation, with which he would go home; but we preſume he muſt get them ſigned by his old friends in the fleet, or about Norfolk, as he will get very few gentlemens names to it. He ſaid commiſſioners were to negociate, but did not ſay who they were.

His lordſhip is not recalled, but has leave to go if he chuſes it. His conduct is approved of, and he has unlimited power to draw on the treaſury. Corbin ſays that he, General Clinton, and Capt. Hammond, all appeared in good humour, the latter declaring he had forbid his tenders to offer injury to individuals or their property, his ſole deſign being to watch the water, and enforce the acts of trade. Gen. Clinton had four companies who had not landed, but, on the contrary, the tranſports with the Mercury had fallen down into the road (Hampton) under ſailing orders; he did not mention his deſtination, but it was gathered from the young officers, that they were to pay a viſit to Governor Martin, at Cape Fear, and then proceed to South Carolina. On hearing that part of our letter to Col. Corbin read, "that we were not authorized or inclined to intermeddle in the mode of negociation, which muſt be left to the Congreſs, the General ſaid there was nothing America could aſk in a conſtitutional way but would be granted, but if we relied on the Congreſs, we had nothing to expect from parliament. Lord Dunmore wanted to borrow his troops to drive ours from Kemp's, he aſked if ours would not return? The other ſaid he ſuppoſed they would; then, ſays the general, I don't think it worth while to meddle with them.

New York, March 6. We are informed by a captain of a veſſel from Rhode-Iſland, that laſt week Capt. Wallace landed his marines on Conanicut in the evening, and began to burn the buildings, but being diſcovered by one of the centinels, a number of our people concealed themſelves behind the walls and fences until they came near them: but the commander thinking it unfair to fire on them without giving them notice, called out, "Who comes there?" when he heard Wallace order his men to make ready, upon which our party inſtantly fired among them, and killed and wounded 30 of Wallace's people; among the ſlain was an officer of marines and the drummer, who was killed by Wallace's ſide, which was plainly ſeen by the light of the houſes on fire. Thoſe that were not wounded of Wallace's party retreated on board the ſhips with greater haſte than they landed.

Wedneſday laſt Wallace and his fleet went down the bay to Rhode-iſland, on which they gave him a canonading as he paſſed, and on Saturday he returned again, when they paid him the ſame compliment.

New-Haven, Feb. 21. The following is an extract of a letter from General Arnold in Canada, dated, the laſt day of January, 1776.

"I have the pleaſure of informing you, my wound is in ſo fair a way, that I expect to be on my legs in a fortnight. Nothwithſtanding our misfortune, we have continued the blockade effectually, though the enemy

enemy are double our numbers, they have not dared to ſhew themſelves without the walls. I expected Gen. Wooſter from Montreal, to take the command here, a council of war thought his preſence abſolutely neceſſary there, ſo that I have had a moſt fatiguing time. The continual agitation I have been in has, in a great meaſure, retarded the healing of my wound. Yeſterday I received a reinforcement of 100 men from Montreal, and expect ſeveral regiments from below in a ſhort time. I have made every poſſible preparation to annoy the enemy; and if I am properly ſupported, as I make no doubt I ſhall be, from below, I have not the leaſt doubt of Quebec's falling into our hands."

Montreal, Feb. 4. Quebec is incloſed by a conſiderable body of our forces, under General Arnold; they hope to avoid ſtorming, and thereby prevent effuſion of blood on both ſides. The garriſon conſiſts of the ſeamen belonging to two frigates, and the merchantmen that winter at Quebec, two companies of wretched emigrants, raiſed from the outſkirts of ſuburbs, the dependents of government; and a few citizens, whoſe expoſed effects obliged their remaining to preſerve. In the whole, we eſtimate from twelve to thirteen hundred men capable to bear arms; a body not ſufficient to do the daily duty of guards only. To this may be added the want of wood, to that degree, that (by a deſerter juſt eſcaped) without deſtroying the houſes, there remains not fuel for five days. Theſe circumſtances, we flatter ourſelves, will engage General Carlton, out of humanity, to offer terms before the ſeaſon becomes ſo advanced, as to oblige the continental army to force their admittance.

Philadelphia, March 6. By an expreſs from Montreal as late as the 20th of February, we learn, that our little army, under General Arnold, was reinforced by 600 freſh men, that they were in high ſpirits, that they kept up the blockade of Quebec, in which, it is ſaid by ſome deſerters, that the enemy are in great diſtreſs for want of fuel; that the ſailors murmur a good deal, and talk of laying down their arms; that they had burnt ſeveral outhouſes, wharfs, &c. for want of other fuel. He alſo informs, that Captain Dorſey and Jenkins, of Col. De Haas Battalion, with their companies, were arrived at Montreal, and that Captains Davis and Williams were within a few days march of it; ſo that in all probability thoſe four companies would be before Quebec by the laſt of February. We alſo learn that our people, who are priſoners in Quebec, are well treated.

Extract of a letter from Montreal, Feb. 21, 1776.

"Capt. Graham of the ſecond battalion is juſt arrived from Quebec; nothing very material, but that the blockade is kept up completely, and frequent deſertions from the town: I am told they have been ſeen to break up the veſſels in the harbour for fire-wood: this abſolutely does great honour to Gen. Arnold and his little party, however they will now get eaſe, as troops are coming in pretty faſt; one company of Pennſylvania troops arrived yeſterday with ſome American manufactured Gunpowder, and many of the New-England Volunteers. We now have, I imagine, about 1500 men before Quebec, but before the reinforcement arrived, the blockade was kept up by 500 men, excluſive of a few Canadians, in whom little or no dependance could at that time be put, nor indeed at any time, without a greater force of continental troops."

The following extract is a proof how little foundation there is in the preamble to the subscription for the Clergy of the Church of England in America. The sum subscribed proves the credulity and servility of the subscribers. Will any one of them say, he has seen those "authentic advices of the distress of the clergy in America?"* If they have not, may it not be suspected that a servile desire to recommend themselves to the potent patrons of the subscription, more than real charity, moved them to contribute to a fund, which will most probably be applied to the support of those refugee American priests, who are mostly a disgrace to their profession.

If any thing could make these men, who are the real authors of this imposition upon the public, and the patrons of it, blush, it would be the proof of the strict and early attention to the clergy by the very people whom they have slandered as their persecutors; a slander which will convince the Americans how very well founded their repugnance was to the admission of episcopacy among them.

Extracts from the Proceedings of the Convention of Virginia, Feb. and *March* 1776.

'And be it further ordained, that where the vestries shall not have compounded with their ministers for their receiving money in lieu of tobacco for their salaries, according to a late act of assembly, in such case the collector of the parish levy shall convey the tobacco so as to be received for levies, to the house of the minister, who shall receive the tobacco so brought from time to time, until his full salary of sixteen thousand pounds of tobacco, with the allowance of 4 per cent. for casks, and 4 per cent. for shrinkage, with the usual expence for transporting the same to the nearest public landing, on some navigable river, is fully paid; and the residue of the tobacco so to be received, shall be by the collector carefully prized up in hogsheads and sold, according to the directions of the last-mentioned act.—But this is not extend to, or affect such counties or parishes where by law the inhabitants are allowed to pay their levies at a certain price in money.

'And be it further declared and ordained, that the several vestries shall be empowered to levy for the collector of their several levies such additional allowance for his trouble in collecting the tobacco in manner aforesaid, as to them shall seem reasonable, according to the extent of the parish; and shall also allow the minister two shillings and sixpence for every thousand pounds of tobacco by him received for his salary as aforesaid, for prizing up the same.

VIRGINIA.

A petition of sundry inhabitants of the counties of Norfolk, and Princess Anne, was presented to the convention, and read; setting forth, that from the commencement of the present unhappy disputes between the British Parliament and the Colonies, they have been uniformly active in promoting the measures recommended by the General Congress and Convention, for the preservation and defence of their rights and liberties; that, in consequence of this conduct, many of them had been reduced to the cruel necessity of abandoning their aged parents, their wives and children, and leaving them to the mercy of a lawless, plundering soldiery, and the more savage slave; that their

* The preamble of the advertisement was in these words: 'Many authentic accounts having been received of the distresses of the Clergy of the Church of England in North America, the Archbishops and Bishops (with his Majesty's approbation) have opened a Subscription for their relief; and they doubt not of the concurrence, &c.

plantations

plantations had been ravaged, their wives and children ſtripped almoſt to nakedneſs, their very bed-chambers invaded at the ſilent hour of midnight, by ruffians with drawn daggers; their houſes not only robbed of plate, money, and every thing valuable, but wantonly reduced by fire to aſhes; their perſons treated with every indignity that elated inſolence and cruelty could ſuggeſt; ſome of their friends dragged into confinement, and now languiſhing under the hands of oppreſſion; that they lamented the tardy and equivocal conduct of ſome of their luke-warm friends, by which Lord Dunmore had been encouraged to begin theſe depredations, which, with ſome concealed as well as open and avowed enemies, he continued to commit ſo long with impunity; that whilſt our troops keep poſſeſſion of Norfolk, they enjoy a ſtate of ſafety; but the poſſibility of their being diſlodged, preſents a dreadful proſpect of the renewal or the exerciſe of greater cruelties; that they can but endeavour to guard againſt ſuch calamities in future; that they apprehend the friends to their country are much inferior to its enemies among the leaders of the people in the two countries; that they have every thing to fear from thoſe who have thereby been induced to bear arms againſt their country, ſhould they have it in their power; that many of their friends have been obliged to abandon their homes, which has put it out of their power to bear teſtimony againſt many who had been apprehended, and juſtly deſerved puniſhment; and praying that a ſtrict enquiry might be made into the conduct of thoſe who had appeared inimical to this country, and that they might be removed to ſome diſtant part of the colony, or ſo diſpoſed of, as to prevent their doing farther miſchief; and earneſtly recommending, that the ſlaves who had borne arms ſhould be tranſported to the Weſt India iſlands.

Convention in Virginia.—It is ordered, that no recruiting officer be allowed to enliſt into the ſervice any ſervant whatſoever, except apprentices bound under the laws of this country, nor any ſuch apprentice, unleſs the conſent of his maſter be firſt had in writing; neither any man, unleſs he be five feet four inches, healthy, ſtrong made, and well-limbed, not deaf, or ſubject to fits. And be it further ordained, that over and above the rifle companies belonging to the German regiment, there be raiſed ſeventeen companies of expert riflemen, which ſhall be allotted by the Committee of Safety to the reſpective regiments.

Williamſburgh, March 1.

Extract of a letter from a member of the Provincial Congreſs of North Carolina, to Col. Howe, dated at Halifax, Feb. 24, 1776.

'A gentlemen by the name of Smith has juſt lodged ſeven of the leaders of the regulators in Halifax goal. He informs me, that the inſurrection is entirely ſuppreſſed, with reſpect to the regulators; and ſays he thinks the Highlanders are diſperſed before now. I do not give implicit credit to this laſt conjecture.

'However, it is clear to me that there will not be a gun fired upon this occaſion; for the number of our troops (not leſs, perhaps, than 5000) will undoubtedly awe the Highlanders into ſubmiſſion, if they are not already diſperſed. Governor Martin, it ſeems, had kept up a correſpondence with the diſaffected in the weſtern part of the province, had formed a plan of inſurrection, iſſued Colonel's commiſſions to many counties for this purpoſe, and ordered that ſuch men as ſhould take arms ſhould repair to the royal ſtandard, at Brunſwick, by the 15th of this month, promiſing that they

they ſhould be then and there ſupported by 5000 regulars.'

Extract of a letter from Charleſtown, South-Carolina, March 11.

'The Good Intent, Capt. Will. Baker, of 23 guns and 240 men, fitted out at this place, fell in the 18th inſt. about 20 leagues from hence, with ſix tranſports and one of the King's ſloops of war of 14 guns, when after a ſtout reſiſtance the ſloop was obliged to ſheer of: four of the latter were taken by Capt. Baker and were brought in here this morning: they have on board proviſions, cloathing, and ammunition, &c. The two other veſſels with the ſloop are ſuppoſed to be gone to Boſton.'

Extract of a genuine letter from Philadelphia, dated March 12.

'No doubt you feel anxious for your country, and will be pleaſed to hear how matters ſtand on this ſide of the water. I ſhall therefore begin to he northward with Quebec: the whole province, except the city, ſubmitted to the Continental arms, under the brave General Montgomery, before the firſt of December; and notwithſtanding the ſevere climate, he marched with his men to join Colonel Arnold at Quebec, before which he lay till near the laſt. When the time of many of his ſoldiers being expired, he reſolved on an attack, in which he fell, as you will ſee by the papers; ſince which our people have kept up the blockade of the town with about 500 men. The hardſhip thoſe men have gone through is hardly credible, and too long for this letter. When the news of Montgomery's fall and defeat reached the other Colonies, it did not damp their ſpirits, but raiſed them. The Congreſs voted more regiments, which were immediately raiſed; and in two months from this defeat, 2000 new raiſed troops joined General Arnold before Quebec; and by the middle or latter end of March, that army will amount to 5 or 6000 men, when Quebec will be again attempted. Boſton is ſtill in the hands of Howe, but we are in hourly expectation of hearing of their flight, as General Waſhington was to begin to canonade it laſt week. We have 2000 men before it—plenty of ſtores, which have arrived here this winter, the want of which has hitherto prevented our doing any thing. The frequent threats of miniſterialiſts, and the late arrival of Clinton at New-York, has put that province in a warlike poſture; the women, children, and moſt of their valuable effects are removed into the country; the town poſſeſſed and fortified by batteries and breaſt-work, and 5000 men who are conſtantly at work; ſo that in a ſhort time it will be very ſtrong: there is alſo 15 or 20,000 men ready to go to their aſſiſtance on a very ſhort notice; ſo that every hour after the firſt twenty-four of any alarm, will produce hundreds of well-armed men.

'Rhode-Iſland is peſtered by Wallace and his ſhips, who hardly ever lands but he loſes more or leſs of his men; he carries on the war in a very piratical manner. Every now and then he lands to ſteal ſheep, &c. at which time, if he can, he burns houſes, and murders the helpleſs, not daring to wait; and as ſoon as he ſees any of our armed men coming, he flies.

'Pennſylvania is ſtill unattacked, but preparing for the worſt. Our river is defended by chevaux-de-friſe ſunk in the channel (on which no leſs than three veſſels have been ſunk by careleſſneſs of pilots) a very large and ſtrong chain; a battery; a 20 gun ſhip; a large floating battery to carry 20 eighteen pounders: and 13 row gallies, with an eighteen pounder in their bows, and 50 men properly provided for in each; three battalions of regulars; and from 30 to 40,000 militia.

'Nothing

' Nothing has happened in Virginia since the entire destruction of Norfolk; but they are there, as well as in North and South Carolina, preparing for the most vigorous defence; and by the month of April will have 30 or 40,000 men ready to take the field, all which will act jointly or separately, as exigencies may require. Amongst these are a great number of riflemen. But where are your resources, say you? Money we have sufficient. By our industry abroad, we have got safely landed in different parts of this Continent, (notwithstanding the low arts of the ministry, and all their men of war) upwards of 100 tons of powder, 150 tons of saltpetre, and a large quantity of small arms, which will supply us for the first part of the campaign; for the other, we expect to be under no obligations to any state on earth for the stores, &c.

' At New York we have a founder who has already cast 14 or 15 excellent brass field-pieces. We have a foundery for iron ordnance, from 24 pounders to swivels. As to iron shot, we have plenty, and, on a pinch, could supply the whole world; and as for small arms, we are not at the least loss, except for the locks, in which branch there will soon be a great number of hands employed. — The means made use of to introduce the manufacture of saltpetre, has met with the desired success; so that the women make it in many parts of the country. From the various accounts, we shall by midsummer have 30 or 40 tons, or more, of our own manufacture. In one manufactory they make 50 cwt. per week. At Newbury, in New-England, they make at least 100 lb. per day. In short, it is now as easy to make saltpetre, as it is to make soft soap *. As to brimstone and lead, ' the bowels of our country produce more than sufficient for a war of 1000 years.

" In a short time we shall have at least 30 ships of war, from 38 guns downwards, besides (if the ministry carry on their piratical war) a great number of privateers. When you return, you will be surprized to see what the mother of invention has done for us; I really believe, if we are harassed for one year more, we shall not want any thing from Europe.

" The ministry have often unjustly accused us of looking after independency; but what they pretend to ' dread, their measures will in a short time bring forth.' ' Common sense,' which I herewith send you, is read to all ranks; and as many as read, so many become converted; though perhaps the hour ' before were most violent against the least idea of independence. This summer's campaign will, I make no doubt, set ' us free from the shackles of education;' and the king of Britain, instead of being the idol of Americans, will be of little more importance here than to frighten little children.

You will see by the papers, that our people have opened their batteries on Boston, ' which is destined to the flames.' I wish I could convey to you a small idea of the ardour which inflames our young men, who turn out with more alacrity on the least alarm, than they would to a ball.

I am, your's, &c."

Extract of a letter from Philadelphia, March 18.

" By a gentleman from Annapolis we learn, that the Otter sloop of war and five tenders went up to Annapolis in quest of provisions,

* For every old woman in America could make soft soap formerly, and as easily now, as the Americans can at present make saltpetre, find brimstone, or, in fact, stand up for the essential liberties of England, and its once hallowed dominions.

which

which he requeſted by letter to the governor, but was plumply refuſed by the people; that his arrival there had much frightened the women and children in Annapolis, ſo that the town was entirely deſerted by them. The Otter then proceeded towards Baltimore, and in her way fell in with a ſhip loaded with flour, bound out, which had run aſhore; but not being able to get her off, the people of Baltimore puſhed off their armed ſhip, retook the flour loaded ſhip, got her off, and brought her back. The Otter and her five tenders lay in ſight a great part of the time. We hear our Maryland brethren, on the firſt alarm, flew to arms with the utmoſt alacrity, and ſtood ready to repel the hoſtile invaders had they attempted to land."

Philadelphia, March 20. By a gentleman arrived in this city from Montreal, which place he left the 4th inſtant, we are informed that 6000 troops in the Continental ſervice had arrived in that city, and 2000 at Quebec; and that Montreal had choſen two delegates (Meſſ. Walker and Price) to ſend to the Congreſs, who ſet out on their way for Philadelphia the 1ſt inſtant.—Our river is full of ſhips of all nations. French, Spaniſh, Dutch, &c. colours in great numbers are to be ſeen upon the ſhips; but moſt French. The American ports are open to ſhips of all nations, and the trade is immenſe.

Extract of a letter from Philadelphia, March 21.

'The Mercury, of 20 guns, and an armed brig in the ſervice of government, commanded by a lieutenant of the navy, have taken within theſe few days near this place, eight ſail of our veſſels, from Curacoa and St. Euſtatia, they were laden with powder and warlike ſtores; there were thirteen of them in company, five of which had the good fortune to eſcape.

Williamſburgh, March 8. We have intelligence that the gaol diſtemper rages with great violence on board Lord Dunmore's fleet, particularly among the negroe forces; upwards of 140 of whom have died within a ſhort time, and who, as faſt as they expire, are thrown over board to the ſharks who ſwarm thereabouts.

A letter from the Mayor of New York to the printer of the Gazette at that place.

"Sir,

"Incloſed I ſend you a copy of a letter I received from Governor Tryon, incloſing an addreſs to the inhabitants of this Colony, which addreſs he has deſired me to get publiſhed. I have therefore ſent you a copy of the letter and addreſs, in order for your inſerting them in your paper, if you think proper.

"I am, ſir, your humble ſervant,

"D. MATTHEWS.

"*New-York, March* 16, 1776."

"*Ship Ducheſs of Gordon, North river, March* 16, 1776.

"Sir,

'I deſire you will lay before the gentlemen of the corporation the incloſed exhortation to the inhabitants of this Colony, and that you will communicate the ſame to the public, and alſo have it inſerted in the ſeveral news papers publiſhed in the city of New-York. I am, ſir,

your moſt obedient ſervant,

"WM. TRYON."

"David Matthews, Eſq; Mayor of the city of New York."

"*Ship Ducheſs of Gordon, North River, New-York, March* 16, 1776. To the inhabitants of the Colony of New-York.

"Notwithſtanding prejudice, deluſion, and faction have hitherto, among too many, uſurped the ſeat of reaſon and reflection, and every exhort-

exhortation I have offered to the inhabitants of this province, (in whose affection I have been taught to be happy) has been reviled, and treated with neglect, yet as my wishes for their prosperity and feelings for their calamities, cannot easily be suppressed, even towards the disobedient, I cannot but repeat my endeavours to recal those who have revolted from their allegiance to a sense of their duty, and to comfort those who have been the objects of oppression, for their zealous attachment to our happy constitution, and their steady obedience to the sovereignty of the British empire.

" It is in the clemency and authority of Great Britain only, under God, that we can look for happiness, peace and protection; and I have it in command from the king to encourage, by every means in my power, the expectations in his Majesty's well disposed subjects in this government, of every assistance and protection the state of Great Britain will enable his Majesty to afford them, and to cherish every appearance of a disposition on their part, to withstand the tyranny and misrule which accompany the acts of those who have but too well hitherto succeeded in the total subversion of legal government. Under such assurances therefore, I exhort all the friends to good order, and our justly admired constitution, still to preserve that constancy of mind, which is inherent in the breasts of virtuous and loyal citizens, and I trust a very few months will relieve them from their present oppressed, injured, and insulted condition.

" England, Scotland, Ireland, and Wales, have united to place their whole strength, power, and confidence in his Majesty's hands. The numerous adresses from all parts of the king's dominions in Europe, speak the loyalty and zeal with which his subjects there engage to support his Majesty in asserting the maintaining the just sovereignty of the British empire over all its members.

" The British state moves not by sudden and violent sallies, nor wantonly oppresses; she has lenity for her basis, and is distinguished for moderation and forbearance; but when her just indignation is roused, the experience of other nations can testify her weight and force. It cannot be sufficiently lamented that the conduct of this country has called for so severe a rod. May a timely and dutiful submission avert its stroke.

" I have the satisfaction to inform you, that a door is still open to such honest, but deluded people, as shall avail themselves of the justice and benevolence which the supreme legislature has held out to them of being restored to the king's grace and peace, and that proper steps have been taken for passing a commission for that purpose, under the Great Seal of Great Britain, in conformity to a provision in a late act of parliament, the commissioners thereby to be appointed having also power to enquire into the state and condition of the Colonies for effecting a restoration of public tranquility.

WM. TRYON."

In Congress, March 16, 1776.

' The Congress, considering the warlike preparations of the British ministry to subvert our invaluable rights and privileges, and to reduce us, by fire and sword, by the savages of the wilderness and our own domestics, to the most abject and ignominious bondage; desirous, at

the ſame time, to have people of all ranks and degrees duly impreſſed with a ſolemn ſenſe of God's ſuperintending providence, and of their duty devoutly to rely in all their lawful enterprizes on his aid and direction, do earneſtly recommend that Friday the 17th day of May next be obſerved by the ſaid colonies as a day of humiliation, faſting and prayer; that we may with united hearts confeſs and bewail our manifold ſins and tranſgreſſions, and by a ſincere repentance and amendment of life appeaſe his righteous diſpleaſure, and through the merits and mediation of Jeſus Chriſt obtain his pardon and forgiveneſs, humbly imploring his aſſiſtance to fruſtrate the cruel purpoſes of our unnatural enemies; and by inclining their hearts to juſtice and benevolence, prevent the further effuſion of kindred blood. But if continuing deaf to the voice of reaſon and humanity, and inflexibly bent on deſolation and war, they conſtrain us to repel their hoſtile invaſions by open reſiſtance, that it may pleaſe the Lord of Hoſts, the God of Armies, to animate our officers and ſoldiers with invincible fortitude, to guard and protect them in the day of battle, and to crown the Continental arms by ſea and land, with victory and ſucceſs: Earneſtly beſeeching him to bleſs our civil rulers and the repreſentatives of the people in their ſeveral aſſemblies and conventions; to preſerve and ſtrengthen their union; to inſpire them with an ardent diſintereſted love of their country; to give wiſdom and ſtability to their councils; and direct them to the moſt efficacious meaſures for eſtabliſhing the rights of America on the moſt honourable and permanent baſis; that he would be graciouſly pleaſed to bleſs all the people in theſe colonies with health and plenty; and grant that a ſpirit of incorruptible patriotiſm and of pure undefiled religion may univerſally prevail: and this continent be ſpeedily reſtored to the bleſſings of peace and liberty, and enabled to tranſmit them inviolate to the lateſt poſterity. And it is recommended to Chriſtians of all denominations, to aſſemble for public worſhip, and abſtain from ſervile labour on the ſaid day. By order of the Congreſs.

JOHN HANCOCK, Preſident.'

Extract of a letter from Philadelphia, March 9.

'Gunpowder has lately fallen here conſiderably in price on account of the great quantity of that article, which has lately arrived in America, from foreign parts. Several hundred new firelocks have been lately made by ſome foreigners, which after being in the water for ſeveral hours, will do as much execution as if they had never been wet. The 17th inſt. the Cornet, of 28 guns, commanded by Capt. Charles Atkins, belonging to this port, arrived here in a diſtreſſed ſituation, ſhe having met an Engliſh frigate off St. Kitt's, when an engagement enſued, which laſted ſix glaſſes, wherein the frigate was obliged at laſt to ſheer off, as ſhe had her mizen-maſt ſhot away, and it is ſuppoſed two-thirds of her crew were killed, as they fought yard-arm and yard-arm, during the greateſt part of the action.

Extract of a letter from Charleſtown, South-Carolina, March 17.

'The Congreſs have reſolved, that it be earneſtly recommended to their conſtituents to promote union and harmony by every means in their power; that for this purpoſe, all thoſe things be avoided which tend to promote diſaffection between the people, utterly diſcountenancing national reflections, and engaging to be watchful and diligent, that the laws for the peace and good order of the Colony be obſerved inviolate as far as may be.'

Several

Several letters from the Weſt Indies, mention the exceſſive dearneſs of proviſions there, particularly at Antigua, St. Kitt's, &c. and add the tranſports lately blown thither have afforded them a little temporary ſupply.

In Provincial Congreſs, Charles-Town, March 16.

'*Reſolved*, 1ſt, That any perſon in the different provinces, who has arms, ammunition, or other articles neceſſary for our defence, to diſpoſe of, or ſhall import any of thoſe articles for ſale, and ſhall not after the publication of theſe reſolutions inform the chairman, or deputy chairman of this Congreſs, of the quantity or quality of the ſame, he ſhall be held up to the public as an enemy to this country.

'*Reſolved*, 2d. That any perſon who ſhall, during the unhappy conteſt with our parent ſtate, diſpoſe of any arms, ammunition, or other articles aforeſaid, to any perſon knowing, or having reaſon to believe ſuch perſon to be inimical to the liberties of America, or ſhall put ſuch articles in the hands of any ſuch perſon, or any other perſon, knowing or having reaſon to believe they are to be uſed againſt thoſe liberties, he ſhall be held up as an enemy to this country: which being unanimouſly agreed to. Ordered the ſame to be publiſhed in hand-bills.

Extract of a letter from Charles-Town, South Carolina, March 18.

'The Provincial Congreſs having received an information, that certain perſons have bought up, and others are now buying India corn, with a deſign to take advantage of the times, they yeſterday agreed to the following reſolutions, viz.

'*Reſolved*, That ſuch engroſſing is intolerable, and ought not to be ſuffered at this preſent juncture.

'*Reſolved*, That ſuch perſons as may have bought India corn, ought not to ſell it an advanced price, and that proper information ought immediately to be laid before the Congreſs or General Committee.

'The Congreſs have prohibited the exportation of corn and rice for ſix months; and have reſolved to have public granaries forthwith, in order to lay up a proper quantity of flour and rice for public uſe, and have appointed commiſſioners to ſee that buſineſs be carried into immediate execution.'

Advices from Virginia ſay, that they have on foot in that colony a regular army of nine battalions, amounting to upwards of 7000 men, including officers, to be commanded by one major-general, and two brigadier-generals, beſides minute-men, and a well trained militia of between 60 and 70,000 men. They make above 1000lb. of ſaltpetre in a day: They have opened and work ſulphur and lead mines, which prove ſo fertile, that they will have enough of theſe articles in a year to ſupply the whole continent. They have eſtabliſhed manufactories of guns and other arms; of which they make large quantities; ſo that they have no apprehenſion of the leaſt want of arms or ammunition.

General Schuyler's account of his expedition to Tryon County.

Publiſhed by order of the Honourable Continental Congreſs.

Sir, Albany, January 23, 1776.

'On the evening of the twenty-firſt I returned from Tryon county; the following is a narrative of that little excurſion.

As I had no troops here to carry into execution the reſolutions of the Congreſs, I was under the neceſſity of communicating my buſineſs to the ſub-committee of this county, which I did, having previouſly adminiſtered an oath of Secrecy. Whilſt the committee were deviſing the means to collect a body of men for this ſervice, and much puzzled what reaſons to give for doing it, the letter and affidavit from Tryon county (copies of which I had the honour to tranſmit

you by my laſt expreſs) came to hand, and the accounts contained in them were made the oſtenſible reaſons for raiſing the militia. Although I thought two or three hundred men, with the Tryon county Whigs, ſufficient to complete my buſineſs, yet I readily conſented that ſeven hundred ſhould be called upon, at once to diſcourage the Tories in other parts of the country, and to give confidence to the Whigs in all parts, but ſuch was the zeal and alacrity of the people, that although the weather was cold in the extreme, it was impoſſible to prevent their coming up, which they did in ſuch numbers, that by the time I reached Caghnawaga. I had very near, if not quite, three thouſand men, including nine hundred of the Tryon county militia.

On Tueſday the ſixteenth, I marched to Schenectady, and on the evening of that day a deputation from the Mohawk Indians met us, and delivered me the following ſpeech, in a very haughty tone.

'We intended to have gone down to Albany, in order to ſpeak to you, but thank God that he has given us an opportunity to meet you here, as we have ſome matters to communicate to you.' To which I gave the following anſwer.—'I am very glad to ſee you here, and I ſhall be glad to hear what the brothers have to ſay, as my ears are always open to them.'—Whereupon Abraham proceeded as follows: 'Brothers, you lately ſent to our place four men, who arrived to us laſt Sunday morning. They told us they were ſent up to us by you, to inform us of thoſe military preparations, which were making down in this quarter. By them you let us know that you thought it not prudent to ſend armed men amongſt us, without previouſly notifying us. Likewiſe, Brothers, your meſſengers informed us of the reaſons of your coming in this manner. You informed us that you had heard that there were a number of men embodied at Sir John's, about Johnſtown; yon told us likewiſe, that as ſoon as they had completed their body, they intended to deſtroy the ſettlements up and down the river. You informed us that you were coming up, to enquire into the truth of the report, and who it was that gave out commiſſions, and what were their deſigns.

'At the ſame time you aſſured us, that no harm was intended againſt us, the Six Nations, as we had laſt ſummer publickly engaged that we would take no part againſt you in your diſpute with the great King over the great water.

'Brothers, you told us that you would come to ſearch into the truth of the report, and you aſſured us alſo, that you would not be the firſt aggreſſor, and that it ſhould be their own fault, if any blood was ſpilt.

'You told us that you would acquaint the Lower Caſtle firſt of the deſign, that they ſhould ſend up to the Upper Caſtle, and they to the Oneyda, and they to the Onondaga, and ſo through the whole Six Nations.

'Brothers, we thanked your meſſengers for the ſpeech delivered to us, and we would conſider of it for ſome time, to return them an anſwer. Accordingly, Brothers, a ſmall number of us, who take care of the news, met in council on this occaſion.

'We thanked your meſſengers for informing us firſt of your deſigns. We ſaid we know the agreement which was entered into with the whole Twelve United Colonies. At that meeting, you remember it was agreed to remove all obſtacles out of the way of the path of peace, to keep it open, that we might paſs and repaſs without being annoyed.

'Brothers you told us that you came to enquire into the truth of the report, which might be done by four

or fix, without any danger in making the inquiry.

' We propoſed your ſending up ſix perſons to enquire into the truth of this matter, as it would be a ſhame to interrupt them, as no perſon would be ſo mean to give them any obſtruction.

' As for ſending your belt forward, we thought to retain it, until we had heard whether our propoſal had been accepted or no.

' And we deſire that you would conſider of this matter, and keep your troops at home, and let us know your mind; and if, after conſidering of our propoſals, you do not agree to them, that you will then let us know what you intend to do.

' They likewiſe ſent word to you, that when they had heard from you, whether you accepted of our propoſals, that we would then do as you deſire in ſending up the news.

' Brothers, we expected an anſwer to our propoſals, but none arrived until we were informed, by a woman who returned from Albany, that thoſe preparations were actually making, and that troops were actually marching in the country. We then, Brothers, took the matter into conſideration, and determined it was beſt for a party to meet you, and you ſee us this day, Brothers, arrived. We come, Brothers, to beg of you that you take good care and prudence of what you are going about. We beg of you, Brothers, to remember the engagement which was made with the Twelve United Colonies at our interview laſt ſummer, as we then engaged to open the path of peace, and to keep it undefiled from blood, at the ſame time ſomething of a different nature made its appearance. You aſſured us, Brothers, that if any were found in our neighbourhood inimical to us, that you would conſider them as enemies. The Six Nations then ſuppoſed that the ſon of Sir William was pointed at by that expreſſion.—We then deſired particularly that he might not be injured, as it was not in his power to injure the cauſe; and that therefore he might not be moleſted. The Six Nations then ſaid they would not concern themſelves with your operation in other parts, but particularly deſired that this path might be free from blood.

' And now, Brothers, we repeat it again; we beg of you to take good care, and not to ſpill any blood in this path, and the more eſpecially, Brothers, as it is as but of this day that the Six Nations had ſo agreeable an interview with the Colonies, and our Chiefs are now hunting in the woods, and not dreaming that there is any proſpect that this path is, or will be, defiled with blood.

' We informed you, Brothers, that we had heard of a woman, that you was advancing, and that you had cannon; we then took it into conſideration; we thought it ſtrange that cannon ſhould be brought into the country, as the Twelve United Colonies had ſo lately opened the path of peace. As you will remember that this path was open laſt ſpring, and the Six Nations agreed to keep it open, we then thought what could influence the Twelve United Colonies to open this path, and from the preſent appearance it is as if with a deſign that the cannon ſhould paſs free from all obſtruction.

' Brothers, attend! It was your requeſt, and a matter agreed upon by the Twelve United Colonies, that we ſhould mind nothing but peace; therefore, Brothers, as we mean to obſerve that agreement, we have expreſſed ourſelves as above, and as, Brothers, we mind nothing but peace, we look upon ourſelves as mediators between the two parties. Therefore, Brothers, as your meſſengers declared that

that you would not be the aggreſſors, we informed Sir John of this, and earneſtly begged of him not to be the aggreſſor, or the means of ſhedding blood, and the ſame time aſſured him that if we found he ſhould be the aggreſſor, we would not pay any farther attention to him, and likewiſe told them that if our Brothers of the United Colonies were the aggreſſors, that we ſhould treat them in the ſame manner.

' This is what we told Sir John, as we look upon ourſelves to be mediators between both parties, and as we have ſaid before, deſired him not to be the aggreſſor.

' To which Sir John replied, that we know his diſpoſition very well, and that he had no mind to be the aggreſſor. He aſſured us that he would not be the aggreſſor, but if the people came up to take away his life, he would do as well as he could, as the law of nature juſtified every perſon to ſtand in his own defence.

' According to the news we have heard, it is as though Sir John would ſhut up the path of peace in that quarter, but that is impoſſible he ſhould do it, as he has but a mere handful of friends. But, Brothers, if this company who are now paſſing by, ſhould go up, and any thing bad ſhould happen, we ſhall look on you as ſhutting up the path.

' It has been repreſented to you, Brothers, that it ſeems that Sir John is making military preparations, and that he is making a fort round his houſe; but, Brothers, as we live ſo near him, we ſhould certainly know it if any thing of that nature ſhould be done, eſpecially as we go there ſo frequently on account of our father the miniſter, who ſometimes performs divine ſervice at that place. We have never ſeen any hoſtile preparations made there, there is no cannon nor any thing of that kind, and that all things remained in the ſame ſituation it was in the life-time of Sir William.

' Brothers, we would not conceal any thing from you, it would not be right to uſe deceit, neither do we mean to do it; the minds of our counſellors are very much grieved, and aggrieved at that part of the diſpoſition of thoſe whom we may call our warriors, as there are ſome among us of different minds, as there are among you. Brothers, our counſellors remembering the covenant we laſt ſummer made with our brethren the Twelve Colonies, have all along ſtrongly urged our warriors to peace, and have checked them when a contrary diſpoſition appeared. Our minds are very much grieved to find any of our warriors of a different ſentiment. We have hitherto been able to reſtrain them, and hope ſtill to be able to do it, for matters are not now carried to extremity, but if they are, our warriors will not be reſtrained, becauſe they will think themſelves deceived if this military force comes into the country.'

' We have declared to you, brothers, that we would not deceive, and that we mean to declare our minds to you openly and freely. We the Sachems have all along inculcated to the warriors ſentiments of peace, and they have hitherto been obedient to us, though there have been rumours that they ſhould be diſturbed, yet we have hitherto been able to calm their minds. But, now, Brothers, ſo large a party coming, alarms the minds of our warriors.

' They are determined, Brothers, to go, and be preſent at your interview with Sir John, and determined to ſee and hear every thing that ſhould be there tranſacted; and if it ſhall then appear that this party ſhall puſh matters to extremes, we then cannot be accountable for any thing that may happen. But as for us, Brothers, the counſellors are fully determined ever to perſevere in the path of peace.

' Brothers

‘ Brothers attend! Thongh I have finiſhed what I purpoſed to ſay, yet I will add one thing more. When the news of your approach arrived at our town, it cauſed great confuſion, ſome were ready to take to their arms, obſerving that thoſe reports reſpecting the unfriendly diſpoſition of the colonies were now verified. I begged of them, brothers, to poſſeſs their minds in peace for a few days. I told them that I myſelf would go to Albany and inquire into the truth of the matter. I was ſo conſcious of my own innocency, that no hoſtile appearance could deter me, however formidable. I therefore deſire them to ſit ſtill until my return, which might be in two days, if I went to Albany; this, brothers, is the preſent ſituation of our people, they are waiting to ſee what news I bring.

‘ Brothers, when I made this requeſt to the warriors, that they ſhould ſit ſtill till my return, they told me that they would, which they are now in expectation of, and will do nothing till I get back. But, brothers, after my return I will repeat to them the ſpeech you will now make to me, and if any of our people ſhould ſtill perſiſt to be preſent at your interview with Sir John, we hope, brethren, you will not think hard of us as counſellors, as it is not in our powers to rule them as we pleaſe. If they ſhould go, and if any thing evil ſhould happen, we beg to know, brothers, what treatment we may expect who remain at home in peace.

‘ Brothers, this is all we have to ſay, this is the buſineſs which has brought us down, and we now expect an anſwer to carry home to our people.

To which I delivered the following anſwer, which it was eaſy to be perceived had the deſired effect.

‘ Brothers of the Mohawk nation,

‘ We, the commiſſioners appointed by the Congreſs and your Brothers of Albany and Schenectady, have paid great attention to the ſpeech you have delivered to us; we now deſire you to open your ears, and attentively liſten to what we have to ſay in anſwer.

‘ Brothers, it pleaſed us to hear you declare, that you would ſpeak your minds freely; we aſſure you that we ſhall do the ſame, and hide nothing from you of what is in our thoughts.

‘ Brothers, we were in hopes that the meſſage, which we ſent you by Mr. Bleecker, would have eaſed your minds, and have convinced you that we had no hoſtile intentions againſt you or any other Indians, for if we had, we would not have ſent you that meſſage, neither would we have ſupplied you with powder as we did laſt ſummer, and again the other day.

‘ Brothers, we are extremely ſorry that you have not complied with our requeſt, to ſend the ſpeech which we ſent you by Mr. Bleecker to the ſix nations, in the manner which we required.

‘ Brothers, you told us that five or ſix men would have been ſufficient to have gone to Johnſtown, and to have inquired what was tranſacting there, and that theſe people would have been in no danger, as it would have been a ſhame to have interrupted them. We acknowledge, Brothers, that it would have been a ſhame if we had ſent them, and they had been interrupted; but we have full proofs that many people in Johnſtown, and the neighbourhood thereof, have for a conſiderable time paſt made preparations to carry into execution the wicked deſign of the king's evil counſellors.

‘ Brothers, it is very true that laſt ſummer the United Colonies promiſed that the path to the Indian country ſhould be kept open. They again repeat that promiſe; and although

though it is by the ſpecial order of the Congreſs, that this body of troops are now marching up, yet it is not to ſhut the path, but to keep it open, and to prevent the people in and about Johnſtown from cutting off the communication between us and our brethren of the ſix nations, and our other brethren living upon the river.

'Brothers, although we have before obſerved that the people, living in and about Johnſtown, are making hoſtile preparations againſt us, yet we will not ſhed a drop of their blood, unleſs they refuſe to come to an agreement by which we may be ſafe, or unleſs they oppoſe us with arms. We do not mean that any of our warriors ſhould ſet their foot on any of the lands you poſſeſs, or that of the ſix nations, unleſs our enemies ſhould take ſhelter there, for thoſe we are reſolved to follow wherever they go. We again repeat, that we have no quarrel with you, and we do expect that you will not interfere in this family conteſt, but ſtand by as indifferent ſpectators, agreeable to the engagement of the ſix nations made to us laſt ſummer, at their own requeſt.

'Brothers, we aſſured you laſt ſummer that, as we had no quarrel with any Indians, we would not touch a hair of their heads; yet when our warriors were at St. John's, they were attacked by Indians; two of your tribe, and ſome others, were killed. You have never blamed us for it, becauſe you well knew that, as our lives are dear to us, we had a right to kill any man who attempts to kill us; you ought therefore not to be ſurpriſed if we take every precaution to prevent being deſtroyed by the friends of the king's evil counſellors.

"Brothers, in a little time we may be called upon to go and fight againſt our enemies to the eaſtward, who are employed by the king's evil counſellors, and can you think it prudent that we ſhould leave a ſet of people, who are our enemies, in any part of the country, in ſuch a ſituation as to be able to deſtroy our wives and children, and burn our houſes in our abſence? Would you leave your wives and children in ſuch a ſituation? The wiſdom by which you have conducted your affairs, convinces us that you would not; and yet ſo cautious are we that no blood may be ſhed, that we ſhall ſend a letter to Sir John, inviting him to meet us on the road, between this place and his houſe, which if he does, we make no doubt but every thing will be ſettled in an amicable manner. And, that he may be under no apprehenſions, we do now aſſure you, that if we do not come to an agreement, he will be permitted ſafely to return to his own houſe.

'Brothers, we thank you that you have concealed nothing from us and we aſſure you that we ſcorn deceit as much as you do, and therefore we ſhall now ſpeak our minds freely on what you have ſaid reſpecting the conduct which your warriors mean to hold. We have no objection, nay, we wiſh that you and they ſhould be preſent to hear what we ſhall propoſe to Sir John, and the people in and about Johnſtown, who are our enemies. But we beg of you to tell your warriors, that although we have no quarrel with them, yet if we ſhould be under the diſagreeable neceſſity of fighting with our enemies, and your warriors ſhould join them and fight againſt us, that we will do as we did at St. John's, and repel force by force.

'Brothers, you have aſked us if your warriors ſhould go, and if any thing evil ſhould happen, what treatment you may expect who remain at home in peace.

Brothers, in the treaty held at Albany, laſt ſummer, you and your warriors

warriors were present, and you and they jointly promised to remain neuter, and not to interfere in this quarrel; should your warriors therefore now take up arms against us, we must consider it as a breach of the treaty, so far as it respects the lower Mohawk castle, of which breach we shall complain to our brethren the other nations: and, at the same time lay the matter before our Great Council, at Philadelphia, whose determination thereupon will be our future guide.

'Brothers, we are surprised that the least doubt should remain on your minds, with respect to our friendly intentions towards you after the many instances we have given you of our love and friendship. But we must impute it to the wicked insinuations of our mutual enemies, who wish for nothing so much as to see the ancient covenant, which has so long subsisted between us, broke.

'Brothers, you have observed that you would pay no regard to that party that should be the first aggressor. We cannnot be the aggressors, for if our enemies in and about Johnstown had had no evil intentions against us, we should never have ever come thus far with an army. Whoever takes up arms against another, although he has not yet struck, must be considered as the aggressor, and not he who tries to prevent the blow.

'Brothers, we have now freely and fully disclosed to you our minds. We hope you will remember what we have said, and repeat it to your brother counsellors and warriors; and, lest you should not be able to recollect every part of this speech, you may have your brothers Karaghqwadirhon * and Tezederonderon to attend you, if it be agreeable to you.

'Brothers, your women have sent us a belt. We beg you to assure them of our regard, and to intreat them to prevent your warriors from doing any thing that would have the least tendency to incur our resentment, or interrupt that harmony which we wish may subsist to the end of time."

To this they made the following short reply:

'Brother Schuyler, the Great man, attend!

'We have this evening heard what you have to say, and we are glad of it, and thank you for it.

'Every thing that has been said to us, brother, has been perfectly agreeable to us.

'I shall not attempt, brother, to make a particular reply to every thing that has been said to us; indeed it would not be proper at this time.

'We are very glad, brother, that you have determined to write to Sir John, requesting an interview with him, in hopes of an amicable agreement.

'Brother, you mention, that it would be agreeable to you that the warriors and counsellors, or Sachems, should attend.

'Brother, we, the Sachems, will attend, even though we should do it at the risque of our lives.

'Brother, we should be glad if you would inform us of the time and place of your interview with Sir John. You likewise told us, that if it was agreeable to us that your interpreters should attend, to recapitulate the speech you have made, which likewise is agreeable to us;

* Dean and Bleecker, interpreters.

and we desire that they may go with us, for by that means all mistakes may be prevented.

'Brother, you may depend on it that we will use our utmost influence with our warriors, to calm their minds.

'You may depend on it likewise, that our sisters will use their utmost influence for the same purpose."

I then assured them again, that as we had no hostile intentions, they might rest assured that nothing disagreeable would happen to them, and that, if they attended at Johnstown as friends, they would receive the protection due to them as mediators, after which they returned. Early on Wednesday, the 17th, I marched, having previously sent a letter to Sir John Johnson, of which the following is a copy:

'Sir, *Schenectady, Jan.* 16, 1776.

'Information having been received that designs of the most dangerous tendency to the rights, liberties, properties, and even lives of those of his Majesty's faithful subjects in America, who are opposed to the unconstitutional measures of his ministry, have been formed in part of the county of Tryon, I am therefore ordered to march a body of men into that county, to carry into execution certain resolutions of my superiors, and to contravene these dangerous designs.

'Influenced, sir, by motives of humanity, I wish to comply with my orders, in a manner the most peaceable, that no blood may be shed, I therefore request that you will please to meet me to-morrow at any place on my way to Johnstown, to which I propose then to march. For which purpose I do hereby give you my word and honor, that you, and such persons as you may choose should attend you, should pass free and unmolested to the place where you may meet me, and from thence back to the place of your abode.

'Rutger Bleecker, and Henry Glenn, esquires, are the bearers hereof, gentlemen who are entitled to your best attention, which I dare say they will experience, and by whom I expect you will favour me with an answer to this letter.

'You will please to assure lady Johnson, that whatever may be the result of what is now in agitation, she may rest perfectly satisfied that no indignity will be offered her. I am, sir, your humble servant,

PH. SCHUYLER.

'To Sir John Johnson, Bart.'

He accordingly met me about sixteen miles beyond Schenectady, accompanied by some of the leading Scotchmen, and two or three others, when I delivered him the following terms.

Terms offered by the honourable Philip Schuyler, esq; Major-General in the army of the thirteen United Colonies, and commanding in the New-York department, to Sir John Johnson, baronet, and all such other persons in the county of Tryon, as have evinced their intentions of supporting his Majesty's ministry to carry into execution the unconstitutional measures of which the Americans so justly complain, and to prevent which they have been drawn to the dreadful necessity of having recourse to arms.

First, That Sir John Johnson shall, upon his word and honor, immediately deliver up all cannon, arms and other military stores of what kind soever, which may be in his own possession, or which he has caused to be delivered into the possession of any persons whatsoever, either directly or indirectly, or that, to his knowledge, may be concealed

in

in any part of the said county; that he shall distinguish all such military stores, of what kind soever, as belong to the crown, or were furnished with the design of arming the Indians, or the inhabitants of Tryon county, from those which may be private property, in order that a proper inventory may be taken of the last articles, that the same may be restored, or the value of them refunded when this unhappy contest shall be over.

Secondly, General Schuyler, out of personal respect to Sir John, and from a regard to his rank, consents that Sir John shall retain for his own use, a complete set of armour, and as much powder as may be sufficient for his domestic purposes.

Thirdly, That Sir John Johnson shall remain upon his parole of honor in any part of Tryon county, which he may choose to the eastward of the district of unless it should appear necessary to the honorable Continental Congress to remove him to some other part of this or any other colony; in which case, he is immediately to comply with such orders as they may think proper to give for that purpose.

Fourthly, That the Scotch inhabitants of the said county shall, without any kind of exception, immediately deliver up all arms in their possession, of what kind soever they may be, and that they shall each solemnly promise, that they will not at any time hereafter, during the continuance of this unhappy contest, take up arms without the permission of the Continental Congress, or of their general officers; and for the more faithful performance of this article, the general insists, that they shall immediately deliver up to him six hostages of his own nomination.

Fifthly, That such of the other inhabitants of Tryon county, as have avowed themselves averse to the measures of the United Colonies, shall also deliver up their arms, of what kind soever they may be, and enter into the like engagement as is stipulated in the preceding article, both with respect to their future conduct and the number of hostages.

Sixthly, That all blankets, strouds, and other Indian articles belonging to the crown, and intended as presents to the Indians, shall be delivered up to a commissary appointed by General Schuyler, in the presence of three or more of the Mohawk chiefs, in order that the same may be dispersed amongst the Indians, for the purpose of cementing the ancient friendship between them and their brethren of the United Colonies, for which sole purpose they ought to have been furnished.

Seventhly, If Sir John Johnson, and the people referred to in the aforegoing articles, shall justly abide by, and perform what is thereby required of them, the General, in behalf of the Continental Congress, doth promise and engage that neither Sir John Johnson, nor any of those people, shall be molested by any of the other inhabitants of the said county, or by any of the inhabitants of the Thirteen United Colonies; but that, on the contrary, they will be protected in the quiet and peaceable enjoyment of their property, the sole intent of this treaty being to prevent the horrid effects of a civil and intestine war betwixt those who ought to be brethren. That all the arms, which shall be delivered up in consequence of the preceding articles, shall be valued by sworn appraisers. That if the Continental Congress should have occasion for them, they may be taken. If not, they will be delivered to the respective proprietors, when this unhappy contest shall be at an end.

He assured me that the Indians would support him, and that some were already at Johnson Hall for that purpose, and others on their way down.

In return I told him, that although averse to shedding any blood, yet if he resisted, that force would be opposed to force without distinction, and that the consequences would be of the most serious nature, unless he complied with my requisitions. He begged time, to answer, until next evening, to which I consented.

About an hour after he had left me, Abraham, and another of the Mohawks, called upon me; I acquainted him of the information I had received from Sir John, which he denied to be true, giving me assurances that the Mohawks would not interfere otherwise than as mediators; I answered, that I hoped they would not, but that if they did, I should surely not hesitate one moment to destroy all that should appear in arms against us. On Thursday the 18th, I approached to within four miles of Johnstown, and about six o'clock received the following answer to my terms.

'Terms proposed by Sir John Johnson, baronet, and the people of Kinsborough and the adjacent neighbourhood, to the Honorable Philip Schuyler, esq; Major-General in the army of the Thirteen United Colonies, and commanding in the New-York department.

'First, That Sir John Johnson and the rest of the gentlemen expect, that all such arms of every kind as are their own property, may remain in their possession, all the other arms shall be delivered up to such person or persons as may be appointed for that purpose. As to military stores, belonging to the crown, Sir John has not any.

'Secondly, answered in the first.

'Thirdly, Sir John expects that he will not be confined to any certain county, but be at liberty to go where he pleases.

'Fourthly, The Scotch inhabitants will deliver up their arms, of what kind soever they may be; and they will each solemnly promise, that they will not, at any time hereafter, during the continuance of this unhappy contest, take up arms without the permission of the Continental Congress, or of their [illegible] officers. Hostages they are not in a capacity to give, no one man having command over another, nor power sufficient to deliver such; therefore this part of the article to be passed from, or the whole included. Women and children to be required, a requisition so inhuman as we hope the General will dispense with.

'Fifthly, Answered in the fourth.

'Sixthly, Sir John has not any blankets, strouds, or other presents intended for the Indians.

'Seventhly, If the above proposals are agreed to and signed by the general, Sir John and the people referred to will rely on the assurances of protection given by the general.

J. JOHNSON, ALLAN M'DONNELL.

'Johnson Hall, 18th Jan. 1776.

'To the honorable Philip Schuyler, esq. Major General."

To which I returned the following answer.

Cagnuage, Jan. 18, eight o'clock, P. M. 1776.

Gentlemen,

Messrs. Adams and M'Donell have delivered me your answer to my proposals of yesterday's date. The least attention to the articles I offered, when compared with yours, must convince you that you omitted replies to several of them, consequently what you have sent me is very imperfect, and also unsatisfactory. I have pointing out some inconsistencies in your

your propofals, as the whole are exceptionable, excepting the laft.

I muft therefore obey my orders, and again repeat that in the execution of them I fhall ftrictly abide by the laws of humanity, at the fame time aſſuring you that if the leaft reſiſtance is made, I will not anſwer for the conſequences, which may be of a nature the moſt dreadful.

If Lady Johnſon is at Johnſon Hall, I wiſh ſhe would retire, and therefore incloſe a paſſport, as I ſhall march my troops to that place without delay.

You may, however, have time to conſider the matter; and for that purpoſe I give you until twelve o'clock this night, after which I ſhall receive no propoſals, and I have ſent you Mr. Robert Yates, Mr. Glen and Mr. Duer, to receive the ultimate propoſals you have to make. This condeſcenſion I make from no other motive than to prevent the effuſion of blood, ſo far as it may be effected without riſking the ſafety of the country, or being guilty of a breach of the poſitive orders I have received from the Honourable Continental Congreſs. I am, Gentlemen, with due reſpect, your humble ſervant,

PH. SCHUYLER.

To Sir John Johnſon, and Mr. Allan M'Donnell.

'Immediately after I had ſent this away, the Sachems and all the warriors of the Lower Mohawk town, and ſome from the Upper, called upon me, and informed me that Sir John Johnſon had related to them the contents of the terms I had offered to him and his aſſociates; that Sir John declared he only meant to guard himſelf from any inſult that might be offered by riotous people; that he had no unfriendly intentions againſt the country, and begged that I would accept of the terms he had offered. In reply I explained my propoſals, and Sir John's anſwer; pointed out the impropriety of dealing with him on the conditions he wanted, and told them that I had given him until twelve o'clock to comply, after which I ſhould take ſuch meaſures as would force him, and whoever aſſiſted him, to a compliance. They were contented with the reaſons I gave, but begged, that if his anſwer was not ſatisfactory, that I would give him until four o'clock in the morning, that they might have time to go and ſhake his head (as they expreſſed it) and bring him to his ſenſes; and they begged it as a favour to be charged to them, that I would not remove him out of the county; they apologized for the threats of their warriors, ſaid that they were not all preſent at the treaty at Albany, but that now they were all here, and declared that they would never take arms againſt us.

I paid them a compliment on their peaceable intentions, and informed them that although Sir John's conduct was extremely obnoxious, and that we ſhould be juſtified in making him a cloſe priſoner, yet I would grant their requeſt for two reaſons, firſt to ſhew our love and affection to them, and to convince them that they could obtain that by aſking it as a favour, which they could not by threatening; ſecondly, that by leaving of him, they might, by their advice and example, teach him to alter his conduct.

At twelve, the following anſwer, from Sir John, came to hand:

'Anſwers to the terms propoſed by the Honourable Philip Schuyler, Eſq; Major-general in the army of the Thirteen United Colonies, and commanding in the New York department, to Sir John Johnſon, bart. the inhabitants of Kingſborough, and the neighbourhood adjacent.

'Firſt and ſecond articles agreed to, except a few favourite family arms.

'Third, Sir John Johnſon having given his parole of honour not to take up

up arms againſt America, and conceiving the deſign of this military operation to be with no other view than that of removing of the jealouſies of which his countrymen are unhappily and unjuſtly inſpired with againſt him, can by no means think of ſubmitting to this article in its full latitude, though for the ſake of preſerving peace and removing any ſuſpicions of undue influence, he conſents not to go to the weſtward of the German flats and Kinſland diſtricts; to every other part of the continent to the ſouthward of this county he expects the privilege of going.

'Fourth, Agreed to, except to that part of the article which reſpects to the giving hoſtages. After the Scotch inhabitants have ſurrendered their arms, the General may take any ſix priſoners from amongſt them as he chooſes, without reſiſtance. They expect, however, that the priſoners taken will be maintained, agreeable to their reſpective rank, and that they may have the privilege of going to any part of the provinces of New-Jerſey or Pennſylvania, which the General, or the Continental Congreſs, may appoint. They likewiſe expect, from the General's humanity, that proviſion will be made for the maintenance of the priſoners wives and children, agreeable to their reſpective ſituation in life. Yet, for the ſake of promoting the harmony of the country, they will not break off this treaty merely on that account, provided the General thinks he cannot exert a diſcretionary power in this matter, in which caſe they rely upon the General's influence with the Continental Congreſs, who, they cannot perſuade themſelves, will be inattentive to the voice of humanity, or to the feelings of parents who may be torn from their families. Thoſe to whoſe lot it may fall to be taken priſoners, it is expected they will be allowed a few days to ſettle their buſineſs, and the gentlemen to wear their ſide arms.

'Fifth, Neither Sir John Johnſon or the Scotch gentlemen can make any engagement for any other perſons than thoſe over whom they may have influence. Neither can they poſſibly know the names of all ſuch perſons who have ſhewn themſelves averſe to the meaſures of the United Colonies. They give their word and honour that, ſo far as depends on them, the inhabitants ſhall give up their arms, and enter into the like engagement with the Scotch inhabitants. The General has it more in his power to diſcover thoſe who are obnoxious, and to make as many as he pleaſes priſoners; neither ſhall they adopt the quarrel of any ſuch perſons as their own.

'Sixth, Sir John gives his word and honour that he has no blankets, ſtrouds, or other preſents belonging to the crown, intended for the Indians, and therefore this requiſition cannot be complied with.

'Seventh, If the above propoſals are agreed to, and ſigned by the General, Sir John and the people referred to, will rely on the aſſurances of protection given by the General. But as it will be impoſſible for the arms to be collected till Saturday next at twelve o'clock, all the men, referred to in the above articles, will be then paraded in John's-Town, and ground their arms in the preſence of ſuch troops as the General may appoint.

JOHN JOHNSON.
ALLAN M'DONNEL.

Johnſon-Hall, Jan. 18. 1776.'

Upon which I told the Indians, that I believed the matter would be ſettled in a peaceable manner. They then retired with repeated expreſſions of their approbation of my conduct, and of eſteem for Congreſs, I then ſent the following to Sir John, viz.

Cognuage, Jan. 19, 1776.

'General Schuyler's feelings as a gentleman induce him to conſent that Sir John Johnſon may retain the few favourite

favourite family arms, he making a list of them.

'The General will also consent, that Sir John Johnson may go as far to the westward as the German flats and Kingsland districts in this county, and to every other part of this colony to the southward and eastward of said districts, provided he does not go into any sea-port town; the General, however, believes that if Sir John's private business should require his going to any of the other ancient English Colonies, that he will be permitted it, by applying to Congress for leave.

'The General will take six of the Scotch inhabitants prisoners, since they prefer it to going hostages. It has been the invariable rule of Congress, and that of all its officers, to treat prisoners with the greatest humanity, and to pay all due deference to rank. He cannot ascertain the places to which Congress may please to send them; for the present they will go to Reading or Lancaster, in Pennsylvania. Nor can he make any promises with respect to the maintenance of the women and children. His humanity will certainly induce him to recommend to Congress an attention to what has been requested on that head.

'General Schuyler expects that all the Scotch inhabitants of whatsoever rank, that are not confined to their beds by illness, shall attend with their arms, and deliver them on Saturday at twelve o'clock, which if not faithfully performed, he will consider himself as disengaged from any engagements entered into with them.

'General Schuyler never refused a gentleman his side arms.

'The prisoners that may be taken, must be removed to Albany immediately, where the General will permit them to remain a reasonable time to settle their family affairs.

'If the terms General Schuyler has offered, on the 17th inst. are accepted with the above qualifications, fair copies will be made out and signed by the parties, one of which will be delivered to Sir John and Mr. M'Donell signed by the General. To prevent a waste of time, the General wishes Sir John and Mr. M'Donell immediately to send an answer. He remains, with due respect, Sir John's and Mr. M'Donell's humble servant,

PH. SCHUYLER.'

Which was agreed to, and on Friday the 19th I marched to Johnstown, having first detached parties to different parts of the country to bring in the other tories, not comprehended in the agreement with Sir John. In the afternoon, the arms and military stores, in possession of Sir John, were delivered up; a much smaller quantity than I expected. On Saturday the 20th, at 12 o'clock, I drew my men in the street, and the Highlanders, between two and three hundred, marched to the front, where they grounded their arms; these secured, I dismissed them with an exhortation, pointing out the only conduct which could insure them protection. I then sent for two of the persons mentioned in Conner's affidavit, the rest not being in the county, and tried by every means in my power to make them confess what Conner charged them with; they strenuously denied the charge, and when I produced Conner, they called him a perjured wretch, and declared their willingness to be hanged, if upon farther examination I should have just grounds to conclude that his charge was supported; I then sent several field-officers and a party with Conner to the spot where the arms were supposed to be hid; he pointed out a small artificial oval island in a duck pond, the greatest diameter of which was about twenty-eight feet, and the shorter about twenty, and raised about three feet above the surface of the water in its highest part,

part, and sloping down to the pond; on its being observed that it was too small to hide so many arms, he said they were put up in four piles. The ground was then cleared of the snow and broke up; it was immediately perceived that the ground had not lately been broken up; they however dug down until they got as low as the surface of the water, and then tried with sticks, swords, and other instruments, but found nothing. The gentlemen present unanimously reported that they were convinced that Conner was an impostor. As such I shall keep him confined, until I receive farther directions from Congress.

On Saturday evening I returned to Cagnuage. Some of the parties, I had sent the preceding day, were returned with about fifty tories, sixty more were brought in on Sunday the 21st. I left Colonel Herkimer, and the committee of Tryon county, to receive the arms of the remainder, and to fix on six of the principal leaders, and send them to me. I expect the whole disarmed, or to be disarmed, will amount to above six hundred. Not being satisfied with the ammunition, &c. delivered me by Sir John, I wrote him the following letter.

Sir, *Cagnuage, Jan.* 21, 1776.

'Although it is a well known fact that all the Scotch people, that yesterday surrendered arms had, not broad swords when they came to the country, yet many of them had, and most of them were possessed of dunks, and as none have been given up of either, I will charitably believe that it was rather inattention than a wilful omission. Whether it was the former or the later must be ascertained by their immediate compliance, or non-compliance, with that part of the treaty which requires that all arms, of what kind soever, should be delivered up.

'After having been informed by you, at our first interview, that the Scotch people meant to defend themselves, I was not a little surprised that no ammunition was delivered up, and that you had none to furnish them with. These observations were immediately made by others as well as me; I was too apprehensive of the consequences, which might have been fatal to those people, to take notice of it on the spot. I shall, however, expect an eclaircissement on this subject, and beg that you and Mr. M'Donell will give it me as soon as may be. I am, gentlemen, with due respect,

Your humble servant,

PH. SCHUYLER.'

To Sir John Johnson, Baronet.

And then marched back to this place. I have had much anxiety, and an incredible deal of trouble, to prevent so large a body of men, collected on a sudden, with little discipline, from running into excesses. I am, however, happy that nothing material has happened that can reflect disgrace on our cause.

I forgot to observe, that previous to my leaving this place, I had sent a message to the Mohawks, advising them of my intended march into the county of Tryon, and assuring them that no violence was intended them, copy of which, with copy of their answer, I inclose.

After I had finished in Tryon county, I dispatched Mr. Deane, the interpreter, with a speech and belt to the Six Nations. Congress will perceive that my speeches are very crude and inaccurate; but although at best incompetent, yet, at this time, I have another excuse from the hurry and confusion which the command of such a multitude must necessarily create. Indeed I never had, during the whole time, less than thirty people about me, nor was it possible to retire to any place where the same inconveniency would not have attended. I am,

am, Sir, moſt reſpectfully, your obedient humble ſervant,

PH. SCHUYLER.

To the Hon. John Hancock, Eſq; &c.

From the PENNSYLVANIA VOTES.

Tueſday, Feb. 27, 1776. A. M.

Mr. Speaker laid before the Houſe a letter from Benjamin Franklin, Eſq; which was read by order, and is as follows, viz.

' Sir, *Feb. 26. 1776.*

' I am extremely ſenſible of the honour done me by my fellow-citizens, in chooſing me their repreſentative in Aſſembly, and of that lately conferred on me by the Houſe, in appointing me one of the Committee of Safety for this province, and a delegate to the Congreſs. It would be a happineſs to me if I could ſerve the public duly in all thoſe ſtations; but, aged as I now am, I feel myſelf unequal to ſo much buſineſs, and on that account think it my duty to decline a part of it. I hope, therefore, that the Houſe will be ſo good as to accept my excuſe for not attending as a member of the preſent aſſembly, and if they think fit, give orders for the election of another in my place, that the city may be more completely repreſented.

' I requeſt alſo that the Houſe would be pleaſed to diſpence with my farther attendance as one of the committee of ſafety.

' With the greateſt and moſt ſincere reſpect to yourſelf and the Houſe, I have the honour to be, Sir, your moſt obedient and humble ſervant,

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.'

To the Hon. John Morton, Eſq;

Upon conſideration of the foregoing letter.

Reſolved, That the ſeat of the ſaid member in this Houſe be vacated accordingly, and that the ſpeaker do iſſue his order to the provincial ſecretary for the election of another fit perſon in the room of the member who has reſigned.

The Houſe proceeded in the conſideration of the memorials and petitions from the officers and privates of the military aſſociation, and after farther debate,

Ordered, That Mr. Dickenſon, Mr. Gray, Mr. Reed, Mr. Rodman, Mr. Brown, Mr. Pearſon, Mr. Humphreys, Mr. Slough, Mr. Roſs, Mr. Ewing, Mr. Montgomery, Mr. Chreiſt, Mr. Kachlein, Mr. Dougherty and Mr. Hunter, be a committee to reviſe the rules and regulations formed by this Houſe for the better government of the military aſſociation, together with the reſolutions directing the mode of levying taxes on non-aſſociators, to report ſuch alterations and additions thereto as ſhall appear neceſſary; alſo to ſelect from the petitions of the aſſociators, lately preſented, ſuch parts as point out defects and propoſe amendments to the ſaid rules and regulations, and lay them before the Houſe, in one view, for the more eaſy conſideration thereof.

Thurſday, Feb. 29, 1776. — The reſolutions of Congreſs, laid before the Houſe the twenty-ſecond inſtant were again read by order, and are as follow, viz.

In CONGRESS, *Oct. 26, 1775.*

Reſolved, That it be recommended to the ſeveral Provincial Aſſemblies, Conventions, or Councils or Committees of ſafety of the United Colonies to export to the foreign Weſt-Indies on account and riſk of their reſpective Colonies as much proviſion or other produce, except horned cattle, ſheep, hogs and poultry, as they may deem neceſſary for the importation of arms, ammunition, and ſaltpetre.

Nov 4. Reſolved, That it be recommended to the ſeveral Aſſemblies

or Conventions of the Colonies respectively, to set and keep their gunsmiths at work to manufacture good firelocks, with bayonets; each firelock to be made with a good bridle lock, three quarters of an inch bore, and of good substance at the breech.—The barrel to be three feet eight inches in length. The bayonet to be eighteen inches in the blade, with a steel ramrod, the upper end thereof to be trumpet-mouthed; that the price to be given be fixed by the Assembly, or Convention, or Committee of Safety of each Colony; and that, until a sufficient quantity of good arms can be manufactured, they import as many as are wanted by all the means in their power.

Resolved, That it be recommended to the several Legislatures, Assemblies or Conventions of the Colonies, to enact a law or pass an ordinance, inflicting the following punishments upon such as harbour deserters knowing them to be such, viz. a fine upon all such offenders not less than thirty, nor more than fifty dollars, and in case of inability to pay the fine, to be punished with whipping, not less than thirty-nine lashes for each offence. Also that they impower the commander in chief, or the officer commanding a detachment, or any outpost, to administer an oath, and swear any person or persons to the truth of any information or intelligence, or any other matter relative to the public service.

Nov. 25. Resolved, That all such ships of war, frigates, sloops, cutters and armed vessels, as are or shall be employed in the present cruel and unjust war against the United Colonies, and shall fall into the hands of, or be taken by, the inhabitants thereof, be seized and forfeited to and for the purposes herein after-mentioned.

That all transport vessels in the same service, having on board any troops, arms, ammunition, clothing, provisions, or military or naval stores, of what kind soever, and all vessels, to whomsoever belonging, that shall be employed in carrying provisions or other necessaries to the British army, or armies, or navy, that now are or shall hereafter be within any of the United Colonies, or any goods, wares or merchandize for the use of such fleet or army, shall be liable to seizure, and with their cargoes shall be confiscated.

That no master or commander of any vessel shall be intitled to cruize for or make prize of any vessel or cargo, before he shall have obtained a commission from the Congress, or from such person or persons as shall be for that purpose appointed in some one of the United Colonies.

That it be and is hereby recommended to the several legislatures in the United Colonies, whether Assemblies or Conventions, as soon as possible to erect courts of justice or give jurisdiction to the courts now in being, for the purpose of determining concerning the captures to be made as aforesaid, and to provide that all trials in such case be had by a jury, under such qualifications as to the respective legislatures shall seem expedient

That all prosecutions shall be commenced in the court of that colony in which the captures shall be made, but if no such court be, at that time, erected in the said Colony, or if the capture be made on open sea, then the prosecution shall be in the court of such Colony as the captor may find most convenient, provided that nothing contained in this resolution shall be construed so as to enable the captor to remove his prize from any Colony competent to determine concerning the seizure, after he shall have carried the vessel so seized within any harbor of the same.

That in all cases an appeal shall be allowed to the Congress, or such person or persons as they shall appoint for the trials of appeals pre-

provided the appeal be demanded within five days after definitive sentence, and such appeal be lodged with the secretary of Congress within forty days afterwards, and provided the party appealing shall give security to prosecute the said appeal to effect. And in case of the death of the secretary during the recess of Congress, then the said appeal to be lodged in Congress within twenty days after the meeting thereof.

That when any vessel or vessels shall be fitted out at the expence of any private person or persons, then the captures made shall be to the use of the owner or owners of the said vessel or vessels: that where the vessels employed in the capture shall be fitted out at the expence of any of the United Colonies, then one third of the prize taken shall be to the use of the captors, and the remaining two thirds to the use of the said Colony. And where the vessel so employed shall be fitted out at the Continental charge; then one third shall go to the captors, and the remaining two thirds to the use of the United Colonies, provided nevertheless, that if the capture be a vessel of war, then the captors shall be intitled to one half of the value, and the remainder shall go to the Colony or continent, as the case may be, the necessary charges of condemnation of all prizes being deducted before distribution made.

That, in cases of recaptures, the recaptors have and retain, in lieu of salvage, one eighth part of the true value of the vessel and cargo, or either of them, if the same hath or have been in the possession of the enemy twenty-four hours, and less than forty-eight hours; one third part if more than forty-eight and less than ninety-six hours, and one half if more than ninety-six hours, unless the vessel shall, after the capture, have been legally condemned as prize, by some Court of Admiralty, in which case the recaptors to have the whole. In all which cases the share detained, or prize to be divided between the owners of the ship making the recapture, the Colony or the continent as the case may be, and the captors agreeable to the former resolution.

Dec. 26. Whereas the Congress, on the twenty-ninth day of November, Resolved, That a farther sum of Three Millions of Dollars be emitted in bills of credit,

Resolved, That the Thirteen United Colonies be pledged for the redemption of the bills of credit so directed to be emitted.

That each colony provide ways and means to sink its proportion of the said bills, in such manner as may be most effectual and best adapted to the condition, circumstances and equal mode of levying taxes in each colony.

That the proportion, or quota of each respective Colony, be determined according to the number of inhabitants of all ages, including negroes and mulattoes in each Colony.

That it be recommended to the several Assemblies, Conventions, or Councils or Committees of Safety of the respective Colonies, to ascertain, by the most impartial and effectual means in their power, the number of inhabitants in each respective Colony, taking care that the list be authenticated by the oaths or affirmations of the several persons who shall be entrusted with this service; and that the said Assemblies, Conventions, or Councils or Committees of Safety, do respectively lay before Congress a return of the number of inhabitants of their respective Colonies, as soon as the same shall be procured.

That each Colony pay its respective quota in four equal payments; the first to be made on or before the last day of November,

1783; the second on or before the last day of November, 1784; the third on or before the last day of November, 1785, and the fourth or last on or before the last day of November, 1786.

And that for this end, the several Assemblies or Conventions provide for laying and levying taxes, in their respective Colonies, towards sinking the Continental bills; that the said bills be received by the collectors in payment of such taxes, and be by the collectors paid into the hands of the Provincial treasurer, with all such other monies as they may receive in lieu of the Continental bills, which other monies the Provincial treasurer shall endeavour to get exchanged for Continental bills, and where that cannot be done, shall send to the Continental treasurers the deficiency in silver and gold, with the bills, making up the quota to be sunk in that year, taking care to cut, by a circular punch of an inch diameter, an hole in such bills, and to cross the same, thereby to render them unpassable, though the sum or value is to remain fairly legible. And the Continental Treasurers, as fast as they receive the said quotas, shall, with the assistance of a Committee of five persons, to be appointed by the Congress then sitting, or by the Assembly or Convention of the province of Pennsylvania, examine and count the Continental bills, and in the presence of the said Committee burn and destroy them.

And the silver and gold sent them to make up the deficiencies of quotas, they shall retain in their hands, until demanded in redemption of Continental bills that may be brought to them for that purpose, which bills so redeemed they shall also burn and destroy in the presence of the said Committee. And the treasurers, whenever they have silver or gold in their hands, for the redemption of Continental bills, shall advertise the same, signifying that they are ready to give gold or silver for such bills to all persons requiring it in exchange.

Resolved, That the inspectors of the press deliver the proof sheets and checks of the Continental bills to the Continental Treasurers, and that they deliver one of each to the Delegates of every Colony to remain with the Provincial Treasurer to be appointed in such Colony, and retain the rest in their hands.

Whereas there is reason to believe, that divers persons, either from inattention to the public good, or with design to retard the recruiting service, have arrested and imprisoned, for very trifling debts, many soldiers who had engaged to risk their lives in defence of the rights and liberties of America; and as it has always been found necessary, in time of war, to regulate and restrain a practice of such pernicious tendency, and in such cases to abate the rigors of law.

Resolved, That it be recommended to the several legislatures in these Colonies, whether Assemblies or Conventions, to pass acts or ordinances prohibiting the arrests of Continental soldiers for small debts. And, in order that the same rule may pervade all the Colonies, that no such soldier be arrested at the suit of any of his creditors, unless the said creditor make oath that the soldier is justly indebted to him in the sum of thirty-five dollars, over and above all discounts; and that the estate of no soldier be liable to attachment at the suit or for the benefit of all his creditors, unless their debts in the whole, on being ascertained by their oaths, shall amount to more than one hundred and fifty dollars.

Extract from the minutes,

CHARLES THOMSON, sec.

By

By the Great and General Court of the Colony of Maſſachuſett's-Bay.

A PROCLAMATION.

The frailty of human nature, the wants of individuals, and the numerous dangers which ſurround them, through the courſe of life, have in all ages, and in every country, impelled them to form ſocieties, and eſtabliſh governments.

As the happineſs of the people is the ſole end of government, ſo the conſent of the people is the only foundation of it, in reaſon, morality, and the natural fitneſs of things. And therefore every act of government, every exerciſe of ſovereignty, againſt, or without, the conſent of the people, is injuſtice, uſurpation, and tyranny.

It is a maxim that in every government, there muſt exiſt ſomewhere, a ſupreme, ſovereign, abſolute, and uncontroulable power: but this power reſides always in the body of the people; and it never was, or can be delegated to one man, or a few; the great creator having never given to men a right to veſt others with authority over them, unlimited either in duration or degree.

When kings, miniſters, governors, or legiſlators, therefore, inſtead of exerciſing the powers intruſted with them according to the principles, forms and proportions, ſtated by the conſtitution, and eſtabliſhed by the original compact, proſtitute thoſe powers to the purpoſes of oppreſſion;—to ſubvert, inſtead of ſupporting a free conſtitution;—to deſtroy, inſtead of preſerving the lives, liberties and properties of the people;—they are no longer to be deemed magiſtrates veſted with a ſacred character, but become public enemies, and ought to be reſiſted.

The adminiſtration of Great-Britain, deſpiſing equally the juſtice, humanity and magnanimity of their anceſtors; and the rights, liberties and courage of AMERICANS, have, for a courſe of years, laboured to eſtabliſh a ſovereignty in America, not founded in the conſent of the people, but in the mere will of perſons a thouſand leagues from us, whom we know not, and have endeavoured to eſtabliſh this ſovereignty over us, againſt our conſent, in all caſes whatſoever.

The Colonies, during this period, have recurred to every peaceable reſource in a free conſtitution by petitions and remonſtrances, to obtain juſtice; which has been not only denied to them, but they have been treated with unexampled indignity and contempt; and at length, open war of the moſt atrocious, cruel and ſanguinary kind, has been commenced againſt them. To this, an open, manly and ſucceſsful reſiſtance has hitherto been made, Thirteen Colonies are now firmly united in the conduct of this moſt juſt and neceſſary war, under the wiſe councils of their Congreſs.

It is the will of providence, for wiſe, righteous, and gracious ends, that this Colony ſhould have been ſingled out, by the enemies of America, as the firſt object both of their envy and their revenge; and after having been made the ſubject of ſeveral mercileſs and vindictive ſtatutes, one of which was intended to ſubvert our conſtitution by charter, is made the ſeat of war.

No effectual reſiſtance to the ſyſtem of tyranny prepared for us, could be made without either inſtant recourſe to arms, or a temporary ſuſpenſion of the ordinary powers of government, and tribunals of juſtice. To the laſt of which evils, in hopes of a ſpeedy reconciliation with Great-Britain, upon equitable terms, the Congreſs adviſed us to ſubmit:—And mankind has ſeen a phæno-

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menon without example in the political world, a large and populous Colony, ſubſiſting in great decency and order, for more than a year, under ſuch a ſuſpenſion of government.

But as our enemies have proceeded to ſuch barbarous extremities, commencing hoſtilities upon the good people of this Colony, and with unprecedented malice exerting their power to ſpread the calamities of fire, ſword and famine through the land, and no reaſonable proſpect remains of a ſpeedy reconciliation with Great-Britain, the Congreſs have reſolved:

'That no obedience being due to the act of parliament for altering the charter of the Colony of Maſſachuſetts-Bay, nor to a governor or lieutenant-governor, who will not obſerve the directions of, but endeavour to ſubvert that charter, the governor and lieutenant governor of that colony are to be conſidered as abſent, and their offices vacant. And as there is no council there, and inconveniencies ariſing from the ſuſpenſion of the powers of government are intolerable, eſpecially at a time when General Gage hath actually levied war, and is carrying on hoſtilities againſt his majeſty's peaceable and loyal ſubjects of that colony; that, in order to conform as near as may be to the ſpirit and ſubſtance of the charter, it be recommend to the Provincial convention, to write letters to the inhabitants of the ſeveral places which are intitled to repreſentation in aſſembly, requeſting them to chuſe ſuch repreſentatives; and that the aſſembly, when choſen, do elect counſellors; and that ſuch aſſembly and council exerciſe the powers of government, until a governor of his Majeſty's appointment will conſent to govern the colony according to its charter."

In purſuance of which advice, the good people of this colony have choſen a full and free repreſentation of themſelves, who, being convened in aſſembly have elected a council; who, as the executive branch of government, have conſtituted neceſſary officers through the colony. The preſent generation therefore, may be congratulated on the acquiſition of a form of government more immediately in all its branches, under the influence and controul of the people; and therefore more free and happy than was enjoyed by their anceſtors. But as a government ſo popular can be ſupported only by univerſal knowledge and virtue, in the body of the people, it is the duty of all ranks to promote the means of education, for the riſing generation, as well as true religion, purity of manners, and integrity of life, among all orders and degrees.

As an army has become neceſſary for our defence, and in all free ſtates the civil muſt provide for and controul the military power, the major part of the council have appointed magiſtrates and courts of juſtice in every county, whoſe happineſs is ſo connected with that of the people, that it is difficult to ſuppoſe they can abuſe their truſt. The buſineſs of it is to ſee thoſe laws inforced, which are neceſſary for the preſervation of peace, virtue and good order. And the great and general court expects and requires that all neceſſary ſupport and aſſiſtance be given, and all proper obedience yielded to them; and will deem every perſon, who ſhall fail of his duty in this reſpect towards them, a diſturber of the peace of this colony, and deſerving of exemplary puniſhment.

That piety and virtue, which alone can ſecure the freedom of any people, may be encouraged, and vice and immorality ſuppreſſed, the

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Great and General court have thought fit to iſſue this proclamation, commanding and enjoining it upon the good people of this colony, that they lead ſober, religious and peaceable lives, avoiding all blaſphemies, contempt of the holy ſcriptures, and of the lord's day, and all other crimes and miſdemeanors, all debauchery, prophanneſs, corruption, venality, all riotous and tumultuous proceedings, and all immoralities whatſoever; and that they decently and reverently attend the public worſhip of God, at all times acknowledging with gratitude his merciful interpoſition in their behalf, devoutly confiding in him, as the god of armies, by whoſe favor and protection alone they may hope for ſucceſs, in their preſent conflict.

And all judges, juſtices, ſheriffs, grand jurors, tything-men, and all other civil officers within this colony, are hereby ſtrictly enjoined and commanded that they contribute all in their power, by their advice, exertions and examples, towards a general reformation of manners, and that they bring to condign puniſhment every perſon, who ſhall commit any of the crimes or miſdemeanors aforeſaid, or that ſhall be guilty of any immoralities whatſoever; and that they uſe the utmoſt endeavours, to have the reſolves of the Congreſs, and the good and wholeſome laws of this colony duly carried into execution.

And as the miniſters of the goſpel, within this colony, have, during the late relaxation of the powers of civil government, exerted themſelves for our ſafety, it is hereby recommended to them, ſtill to continue their virtuous labours for the good of the people, inculcating by their public miniſtry, and private example, the neceſſity of religion, morality, and good order.

In COUNCIL, *Jan.* 19, 1776.

Ordered, That the foregoing proclamation be read at the opening of every ſuperior court of judicature, &c. and inferior court of common pleas, and court of general ſeſſions for the peace within this colony, by their reſpective clerk; and at the annual town meetings in March, in each town. And it is hereby recommended to the ſeveral miniſters of the goſpel, throughout this colony to read the ſame in their reſpective aſſemblies on the lord's day next after their receiving it, immediately after divine ſervice.

Sent down for concurrence.

PEREZ MORTON, deputy ſec.

In the Houſe of Repreſentatives, *Jan.* 23, 1776.

Read and concurred,

WILLIAM COOPER, ſpeaker, pr. tem.

Conſented to,

William Sever, Walter Spooner, Caleb Cuſhing, John Winthrop, Thomas Cuſhing, Moſes Gill, Michael Farley, Samuel Holten, Charles Chauncy, Joſeph Palmer, John Whetcomb, Jedediah Foſter, Eldad Taylor, John Taylor, Benjamin White, James Preſcot.

By order of the General Court,

PEREZ MORTON, deputy ſec.

GOD ſave the PEOPLE.

Portſmouth, April 29. Sailed the Worceſter and Speedwell for North America.

St. James's, April 27. The fleet of tranſports, having on board the firſt diviſion of the Heſſian troops under the command of Lieutenant General Heiſter, left the Weſer on the 17th inſtant, arrived off Dover on Wedneſday laſt the 24th, and came yeſterday morning to Spithead. The troops are all in perfect health; and are preparing for their immediate departure for North America. *Gazette.*

This article, though in the Gazette, was not true. The Heſſian general refuſed to ſail to America till the arrival of the ſecond diviſion of his troops. An expreſs was ſent to London. The miniſtry were perplexed

perplexed. The —— being made acquainted with the affair, ordered the Heſſians to go directly; adding that he would take the matter upon himſelf, and ſettle it with the Landgrave. And General Harvey was ſent (April 26) to explain and enforce this command to the Heſſian general. The wind being fair to carry the troops to America, occaſioned this anxiety to get them away. It was the ſecond of May before this miſunderſtanding was ſettled; and on this day this wind changed. However on the 6th in the afternoon the wind was favourable again, and they ſailed.

Extract of a letter from Portſmouth, May 7.

'Yeſterday afternoon, about five o'clock, ſailed his Majeſty's ſhip Preſton, Commodore Hotham; Rainbow, Sir George Collier; Emerald, Captain Caldwell; Brune, Captain Ferguſon; Jerſey, Captain Halſtead, Strombolo, Captain Phipps, and Carcaſs Bomb, Captain Read, with tranſports with the Heſſian troops, foot guards, artillery, and many victuallers, under their convoy for North America. Above 300,000l. of foreign ſpecie was put on board the men of war.

Whitehall, May 3. General Howe, commander in chief of his Majeſty's forces in North America, having taken a reſolution on the 7th of March to remove from Boſton to Halifax, with the troops under his command, and ſuch of the inhabitants, with their effects, as were deſirous to continue under the protection of his Majeſty's forces; the embarkation was effected on the 17th of that month, with the greateſt order and regularity, and without the leaſt interruption from the rebels. When the packet came away, the firſt diviſion of the tranſports was under ſail, and the remainder were preparing to follow in a few days; the admiral leaving behind as many of the ſhips of war as could be ſpared from the convoy, for the ſecurity and protection of ſuch veſſels as might be bound to Boſton. *Gazette.*

Whitehall, May 3. The king has been pleaſed to order letters patent to be paſſed under the Great Seal of Great Britain, conſtituting and appointing Richard Lord Viſcount Howe, of the kingdom of Ireland, and the Hon. William Howe, eſq. Major-General of his Majeſty's forces, and General of his Majeſty's forces in North America only, to be his Majeſty's commiſſioners for reſtoring peace to his Majeſty's Colonies and plantations in North America; and for granting pardon to ſuch of his Majeſty's ſubjects there, now in rebellion, as ſhall deſerve the royal mercy. *Gazette.*

His Majeſty hath alſo been pleaſed to appoint Henry Strachy, eſq. to be ſecretary of the ſaid commiſſion. *Gazette.*

Portſmouth, May 12. This morning Lord Howe ſailed from St. Helens on board his Majeſty's ſhip Eagle for America.

Gov. HUTCHINSON's *letters continued from volume* II. *page* 162.

Boſton, June 22, 1772.

To Governor Pownall.

The union of the colonies is pretty well broke, I hope I ſhall never ſee it renewed. Indeed our ſons of liberty are hated and deſpiſed by their former brethren in New-York and Pennſylvania, and it muſt be ſomething very extraordinary ever to reconcile them.——

Boſton, June 30, 1772.

Dear Sir, (Capt. Gambier)

Allow me now and then to enquire after you, and Mrs. Gambier and the little folks. You are in the midſt